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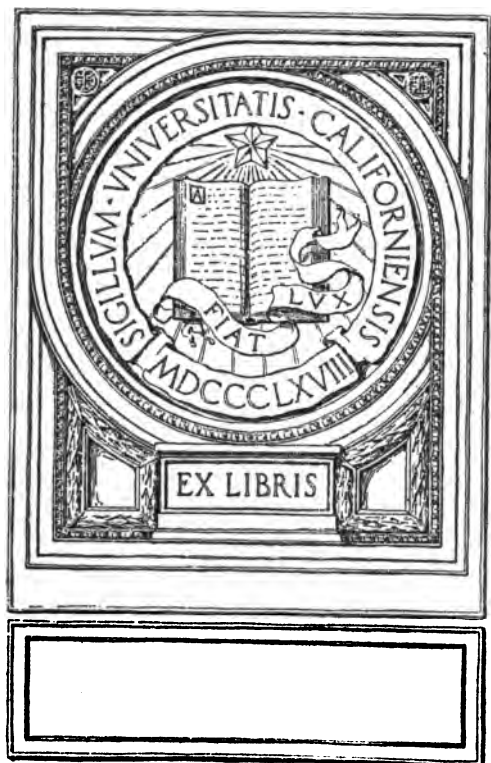
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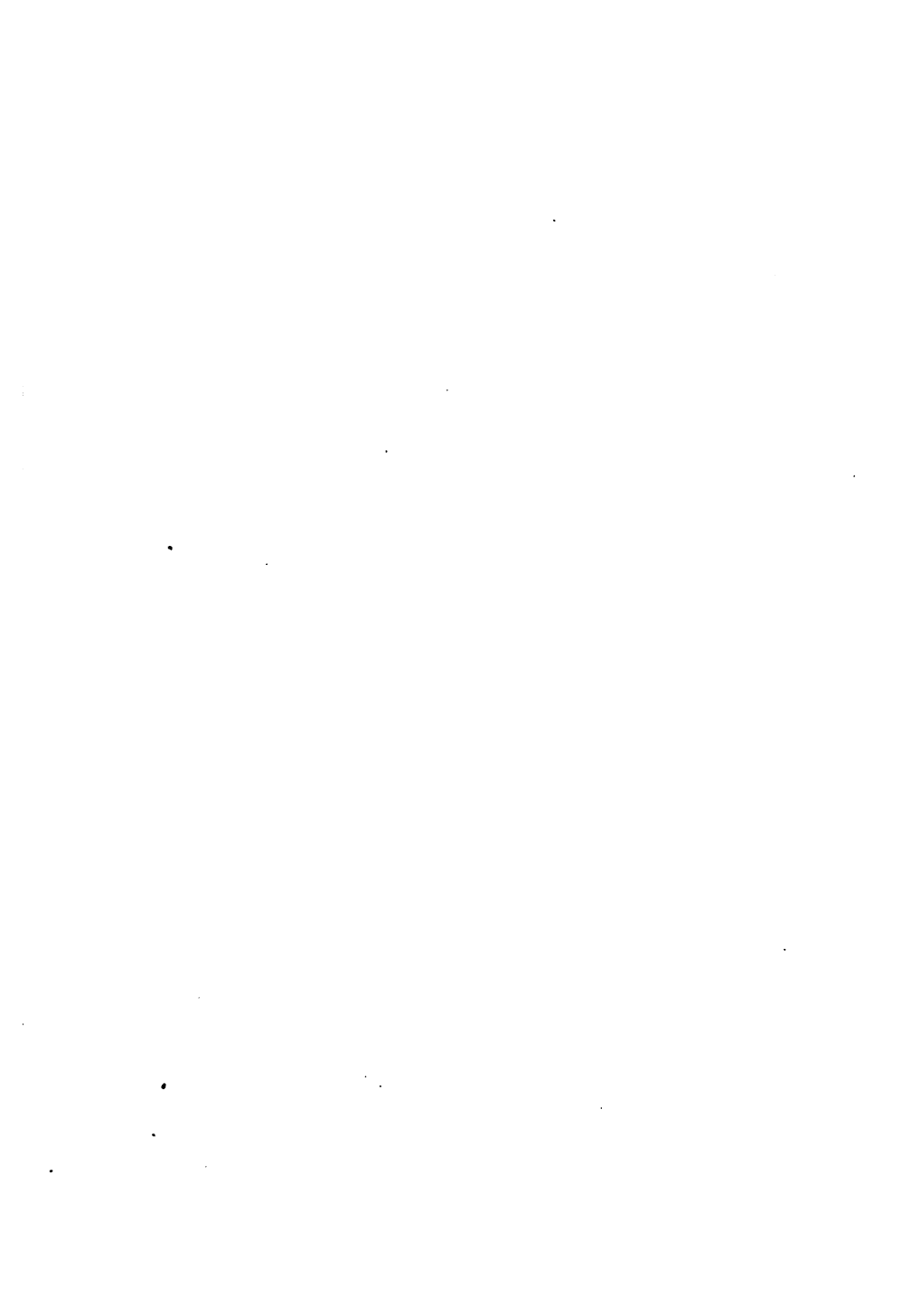
SELF-SURVEYS BY
TEACHER-TRAINING SCHOOLS
W.H.ALLEN & C.G.PEARSE

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY SERIES



EDUCATIONAL SURVEY SERIES

**Self-Surveys by
Teacher-Training Schools**





State Normal and Industrial School for Women, Harrisonburg, Virginia

Teacher training made attractive

EDUCATIONAL SURVEY SERIES

Self-Surveys by Teacher-Training Schools

By WILLIAM H. ALLEN, Ph.D.

DIRECTOR OF THE INSTITUTE FOR PUBLIC
SERVICE, NEW YORK CITY

and

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PRESIDENT OF MILWAUKEE NORMAL COLLEGE



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INTRODUCTION

NO other enterprise in the United States is as important to its future welfare as its teacher training. We may reorganize our systems, revolutionize our courses of study, introduce innovations of scheme and scope, increase salaries, insure pensions, and mass endowments, but none nor all of these can appreciably raise our standard of education unless we improve our teacher training. Wherever the Stars and Stripes fly there is immediate and urgent need for helps in training teachers prior to and during their service as teachers. The first and longest step forward is for each teacher-training school to analyze its present program, methods, and needs.

No commercial enterprise would be permitted to go on for a very long period without an exhibit of assets and liabilities and profits and losses, and a showing of present condition. To record the transactions and progress of such business, books of account are kept, and exhibits, drawn from the facts as set down in these books, are made to show the owners the condition of the business and the results of their venture. It is comparatively easy to make such showings in financial matters, for records are kept in recognized units of material values, and trial balances and profit-and-loss statements are set down in terms which depend merely upon a correct count of these recognized units. Well-devised and accepted systems of showing business facts have been established and recognized experts in commercial accounting are at hand to record transactions and to exhibit results in balance sheets and statements which are easily read and commonly understood.

Until very recently, however, our most important public enterprise — the education of the youth of the land — was allowed to proceed, and, in many quarters, still proceeds, without any recognized or understood plan of accounting, so far as its most vital features are concerned. Most school systems have a fairly accurate method of keeping track of income and outgo in dollars, although there has

been and is little understanding of relative expenditures as between different communities, based upon recognized standards of unit costs for various educational purposes, and there is much need of careful study to arrive at a satisfactory system of accounting and cost-showing for educational systems and institutions. But up to yesterday, there had been little attempt to show actual conditions as they existed in the schools, or to make any correct or reliable valuation of their educational product. Within the past decade this lack of a knowledge upon which to base a judgment of school conditions and performance has been felt, and attempts have been made to overcome it.

When a business concern has permitted loose methods of accounting, and its business has got into a tangle, two plans of procedure present themselves. The firm may call in expert accountants to make a thorough examination of the records, of the assets and liabilities and resources, and of the profits or losses; and, following such an examination, to make a statement or exhibit showing the facts which it is important for the owners to know. Or they may put in charge of their plant either some one who is already in their employ or some one from the outside, who is competent, in person or with the help of others whom he may associate with him, to make the necessary examination, modifying conditions as they are found to be wrong, and not only making an examination and a showing, but applying the remedies thought to be appropriate for the bad conditions discovered, so that when the study of the institution is completed, poor methods of doing business may have been done away with. A third alternative, a combination of the other two plans, may be used. Experts may be set to make an investigation and exhibit the results; this may then be followed by the second plan, some one either already in the establishment or from the outside may be put in charge to reconstruct and operate the business.

A serious embarrassment arose when attempts at the examination and exhibit of conditions in schools were first

made. There were no trained examiners or recorders of school management and results. The profession of expert accountant and evaluator of schools and school work had still to be created. A number of men, most of them in prominent positions in large universities, at once came forward, however, and signified their readiness to undertake, for a generous remuneration, any tasks of the kind which might be assigned to them; with one accord they recommended themselves and each other as educational "surveyors." The fact that a considerable proportion of them had little previous personal knowledge of public schools and other public educational institutions seemed not in any way to dash their confidence in themselves as qualified for this work.

Some ludicrous situations have arisen as the result of these conditions, as was forcefully and repeatedly pointed out at the Kansas City meeting of the nation's school superintendents and college presidents. In some cases surveys have been made and reports promulgated in an incredibly short space of time. In others, the report might have been written in advance by any one familiar with the personal bias and affiliations of the members of the surveying party. In one especially interesting case, representatives of a large, privately endowed university were commissioned to study and report upon the teacher-training schools of the country, nearly all of which are either state or city normal schools. The main subject of inquiry in this case seemed to be the number and kind of academic degrees possessed by instructors in these schools. A normal school or a college or any other kind of school is, like an apple orchard, of value as a going and producing concern; the number and quality of apples, or the number and especially the success of the graduates are the things of most moment. An estimate of teacher-training schools, based on the degrees standing after the names of instructors, is very like an estimate of an apple orchard based on the height of trees or the diameter of their trunks, or on the relative quantities of oxygen or carbon or earthy ash in the composition of the wood, or the

names of the nurserymen from whom the trees were bought.

For the most part our studies of schools — our surveys — have been of the examination and report order, similar to that used by the concern whose owners want to know the present status of their enterprise; there has usually been no connection between the study and constructive measures to correct those things found not to be right. It has been as though the expert accountant had made a report and gone away, and the business had been allowed to go on in the same old loose and unscientific fashion; or as if the physician had been called to make a diagnosis, and afterwards no use had been made of it to change the conditions surrounding the patient.

The educational survey, a discussion of which forms most of the subject matter of this volume — the survey of Wisconsin's eight normal schools — is one of the most notable so far made, in a number of particulars. It was begun, and so far as concerned the school with which he is now connected, practically completed, before the writer entered the service of the normal-school system, so that he can speak of it without personal interest or bias.

The survey was made by an official body, responsible to the people who maintain the public educational system, including the normal schools. This body, the State Board of Public Affairs, made up of leading state officials and a number of prominent citizens, the non-official members appointed by the governor of the state, employed the investigators and determined the nature of the inquiry upon which the report was based; and the findings and recommendations were made to that board. The study was neither framed nor carried on by any foundation or other private agency, nor was it conducted by a distant bureau, whose knowledge of the study and findings and whose influence on the methods of work and conclusions drawn could not be only nominal.

The survey was coöperative. The Board of Normal Regents and the presidents and faculties of the normal schools were enlisted in determining the scope of the study, in fur-

nishing information desired and necessary, and in passing upon the statements of facts and conditions as ascertained. No survey of such an institution as a school can bring the best results when the people within the system resist and antagonize the study, or do not cheerfully assist in establishing the facts upon which any valuable report and recommendations must rest.

The survey was not hurried. Enough time was taken to establish the accuracy of findings; if new subjects or angles of inquiry developed, these were followed out. This is an important element in getting things right. If a year or two years or even three should be required to do the work properly, it is a waste of time and money to hurry it through in less. Science will not be hurried, and such studies and reports should have scientific value and be a correct basis for action.

The study was made by men who were familiar with the problems to be studied. The engineering and housing studies were made by men specially trained in this work — a part of them sent into the state for the purpose, a part from the staffs of some state boards which employ such experts. The educational studies were done by school people either inside or outside of the normal-school system. The major part of the detailed educational study was made by, or in immediate coöperation with, Mr. A. N. Farmer, who had wide experience in public educational work and is now superintendent of the city schools of Evanston, Illinois.

The study was not only coöperative but also immediately and continually constructive. As soon as one department or line of investigation was sufficiently advanced, a report of findings was submitted to the normal schools and the regents. These facts were discussed and, if they suggested that a remedy was needed, that remedy was at once sought for and considered. In this way many defects were corrected and many improvements, based on survey findings and recommendations, were brought about, long before the study was completed or the final report made.

In the particulars referred to, this survey or study has been notable among enterprises of this character. It was also notable for the good temper which marked it throughout its progress and for the fact that, while there were some of the findings and some recommendations which were not palatable to the normal-school people, there was a practical agreement on facts and no heartburnings and recriminations followed the completion of the survey and the submission of the report. The report is notable also for the suggestive features which point the way for continued study and continued improvements, and for the continued application of certain tests by the normal-school people themselves to certain phases and departments of their work.

If the conditions had permitted the normal-school system, through some one in the service of the regents and in touch with all the schools, to be put in charge of this study, using the same or similar means for ascertaining and assembling and displaying facts, and if this person could have remained permanently attached to the system, checking results and changes, continuing the study of facts and conditions, maintaining a permanent bureau of study, and co-operating with the several schools in eliminating errors and waste and in inaugurating and building up new and desirable features, the situation would have been ideal.

As it has been done, however, the study, as summarized, set forth, and supplemented in this volume, may be of the greatest service, not only to other normal schools and normal-school systems, as furnishing a means for self-questioning and self-study and self-improvement, based on the study and findings and suggestions discussed herein, but it may also serve to arouse thought among public-school men and the heads of other educational institutions, who are interested in having suggestions for self-inquiry, and for their own study of their own institutions.

C. G. PEARSE

MILWAUKEE, WISCONSIN
June 1, 1917

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SELF-SURVEYS BY TEACHER- TRAINING SCHOOLS

I

REASONS FOR SELF-SURVEYS

1. *Survey Fever Infects Teacher-Training Schools*

IN this hour the normal school is threatened with a new contagion called the survey.

Unheard of until 1912, the normal-school survey today is part of the thinking — the hoping or the dreading — of every trainer of teachers in the land.

The United States Bureau of Education has surveyed Iowa's State College for Teachers and provisions for training teachers in Washington, Colorado, Wyoming, North Dakota, etc., and has published a bulletin on standardizing normal schools.

Some state departments of education and normal-school presidents are making local surveys. The National Council of Normal School Presidents has a special committee on survey methods.

Mr. Carnegie's Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, after studying Vermont's normal schools, has continued its comparison of the normal schools of Missouri and Indiana.

Mr. Rockefeller's General Education Board is making studies of Maryland's normal schools and of Minnesota's county training schools for rural teachers.

Within ten — perhaps within five — years every normal school in the country will be surveyed. The same movement will insure surveys of all other agencies, private and public, which train or supply teachers.

Whether we like it or not, normal-school surveys have come to stay.

2 *Self-Surveys by Teacher-Training Schools*

When anything comes to stay the provident man tries to utilize it, stops opposing and deploring it, and does his best to enjoy and further it.

"Know thyself" is not only the proper study for men; it is also an indispensable study for the normal school. Among the essential studies of normal-school officers, teachers, and classes will soon be the principles and methods of surveying normal schools and all other places of teacher training.

2. *Who Will Survey Teacher Training?*

Whether normal-school surveys are made by "insiders" or "outsiders" depends upon what insiders do these next few years and what they leave undone.

When the United States Bureau of Education authorized a nation-wide study of normal schools, it acted upon the initiative of, and through, an outsider — head of a privately supported school of education. Iowa's great college for teachers was studied, not by trainers of teachers, but by college professors and administrators. Vermont's teacher-training schools were studied by the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, which used college teachers and officers. In the same way the normal schools of Missouri, Indiana, and Maryland are being studied.

Ohio's survey of 1913 was by a former school superintendent, Dr. H. L. Brittain, accompanied by the presidents or deans of the normal schools surveyed. Wisconsin's eight normal schools were surveyed in 1913 by their own officers and teachers under the direction of a former school superintendent, A. N. Farmer, working with a committee of Wisconsin normal-school presidents. New York City's Board of Education began in 1914 a survey of its three training schools by asking its own division of reference and research to outline a method for self-survey.

College teachers and foundation representatives will continue to be interested in surveying normal schools — a pas-

time that is temporarily more comfortable than surveying colleagues in college or foundation.

Financial necessity and within-state jealousies and competition will compel state departments of instruction, legislative committees, and central boards of education to survey all training of teachers toward which the state contributes. The forehanded public normal school will not wait to be surveyed by outsiders but will start at once to survey itself.

The forehanded private teacher-training school will also take steps to prove its progressiveness without waiting for alumni or competitor to suggest a survey.

3. *Advantages of Self-Surveys*

The auto-survey or self-survey is the most fruitful. In fact, it should be the chief aim — as it is the best result — of special surveys by outsiders to stimulate and make easy the self-survey.

Any survey that does not lead to more self-examination by presidents and teachers has been a partial failure. From such a survey the surveyor absorbs the benefits.

Any survey which is not participated in by presidents and teachers is apt to result not only in little help but in actual harm. No survey which is made by a school of itself in a proper spirit can help being an inspiration and a guide.

The auto-survey or self-study is in turn most helpful when it is continuous and cumulative rather than special and sporadic.

Continuous self-study by insiders means “scientific management,” “efficiency,” and the joy of working.

It is what those who are responsible for normal schools know and do that will raise the standard of normal-school work by discovering wherein the schools fail to meet recognized needs and to eliminate waste in course of study, methods of instruction, and organization.

A lesser but cogent reason for the self-survey is this: The specific outside survey, like the rainbow, usually follows

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and seldom precedes the storm; it is improvident, therefore, for normal schools to put off self-analysis and self-checking until after legislature, state board, foundation, or alumni have started a special survey.

This handbook is an effort to put in compact form methods and objects of self-study which will make it easier for responsible officers to survey schools or classes for training teachers.

For Memoranda by Reader

II

PATHFINDING BY WISCONSIN'S NORMAL SCHOOLS

4. *Wisconsin's Coöperative Survey Points the Way*

THE survey of Wisconsin's eight normal schools is used as the basis of this handbook because in origin, method, constructive results, and published report it is the most easily studied, and while a coöperative survey conducted by order of the legislature, can easily be utilized for a self-survey.

In 16 ways the Wisconsin survey may profitably be emulated by self-surveyors:

1. It started with the public via the legislature, which wanted to know where if at all the eight normal schools needed more or less financial support, and where if at all their program, equipment, and results could be improved.
2. Its methods and results are "open plumbing"—i.e., every step is exposed to analysis.
3. Its questions were specific.
4. Its field studies were extensive.
5. Normal-school officers coöperated in planning.
6. University officers coöperated in planning.
7. The state department of public instruction coöperated in planning.
8. Normal-school officers coöperated in surveying.
9. Normal-school teachers, presidents, and state department members of public instruction coöperated in surveying.
10. Extensive student testimony was taken.
11. Survey findings were submitted to those surveyed for confirmation or modification according to the evidence.
12. It was a build-as-you-go survey — i.e., interim reports were made to regents, who used the results for im-

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mediate building without waiting for the final formal survey report.

13. The results were published.
14. The published results were used as the basis for continuing the constructive program already under way by regents, presidents, and faculties.
15. It concerned eight different schools in eight different localities then having 124 teachers and 3600 students, and costing \$1,056,000 annually.
16. The attitude of inquiry — an effort to settle normal-school and training questions on the basis of survey facts — continued in Wisconsin after the survey was finished, not only among normal-school officers themselves but among legislators, editors, and the general public.

5. *What the Wisconsin Survey Covered*

Because even without elaboration it will prompt so many suggestions by those planning to survey their own teacher-training methods and results, the table of contents of the Wisconsin normal-school survey report is reproduced here with but a few minor abridgments.

Please note the "set up" of the tables, differences in type, indentation, etc., which symptomize aims and methods of auto-surveying to be dealt with specifically later. Please note also how many of the sections relate to field work in which students can profitably be used to their own great benefit.

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For Memoranda by Reader

III

STEPS IN MAKING A SELF-SURVEY

6. *How the Survey Started*

IN 1911 Wisconsin's legislature ordered a study of state business, for which it created an efficiency commission — largely ex-officio — called the state board of public affairs.

In "budgeting" — i.e., planning and financing — its program the state board made no provision for studying the state's educational business, an oversight which the legislative reference librarian, Dr. Charles McCarthy, sought to amend by appealing for private assistance. He wrote to William H. Allen, then director of a New York training school for public service, who in turn secured the services of three men seeking training via doing.

The rural schools were the first to be studied. For direction the state board looked to Mr. Allen and Dr. McCarthy. Dr. Horace L. Brittain and A. N. Farmer made the field studies; S. G. Lindholm was in charge of the office; several university professors advised; several university graduate students made field studies; later Dr. E. A. Fitzpatrick was engaged by the state board of public affairs to prepare publicity material which would make survey facts easily understandable to patrons of the rural school.

No one in Wisconsin who read newspapers, and almost no one who listened to sermons, was unaware of the survey findings. Rural-school needs were discussed in the metropolitan dailies, country weeklies, and syndicated notes. "Rural-school Sunday" was observed by churches of all denominations.

Later, findings were discussed by legislators and 24 laws were passed, either based upon these findings or strengthened by them. Proposals of long standing were carried more easily because concrete facts were available about 131 schools in 31 counties and about methods of county and state supervision.

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When voting to continue its state efficiency work the legislature of 1911 made it a condition that the eight normal schools and the state university should be studied during the next biennium.

The normal-school survey began with visits by three inspectors, all of them familiar with the rural-school background — Messrs. Lindholm, Farmer, and Fitzpatrick. They began a study of organization, buildings, administrative methods, records, and classroom teaching. Stenographic notes were taken of a number of classes.

Normal-school authorities were but partially interested. On the surface their attitude was for the most part coöperative. Actually there was resentment, with lack of coöperation and with incipient opposition and controversy. Had the study continued without more formal and complete enlistment of the normal schools themselves and of the state board of normal regents, there would unquestionably have resulted distressing controversies over the final report and unwillingness to use its results.

Fortunately for surveys in general and for Wisconsin in particular complete coöperation was effected, as shown on page 17.

7. Are Survey Controversies Helpful?

Survey controversies sometimes lead to open roads, often only to blind alleys.

One distinguished Wisconsinite has insisted that the normal-school survey did not create enough controversy to be productive. He asserts that the public did not discuss the survey findings enough and believes that if the normal schools had denied everything or had fought back more they would have benefited more. He especially regrets that the deficiencies were not tagged to show which instructor, which faculty, or which school was responsible.

Two instances show the desirability in a survey of doing the utmost possible to avoid controversy; they show also the



Making Babcock test

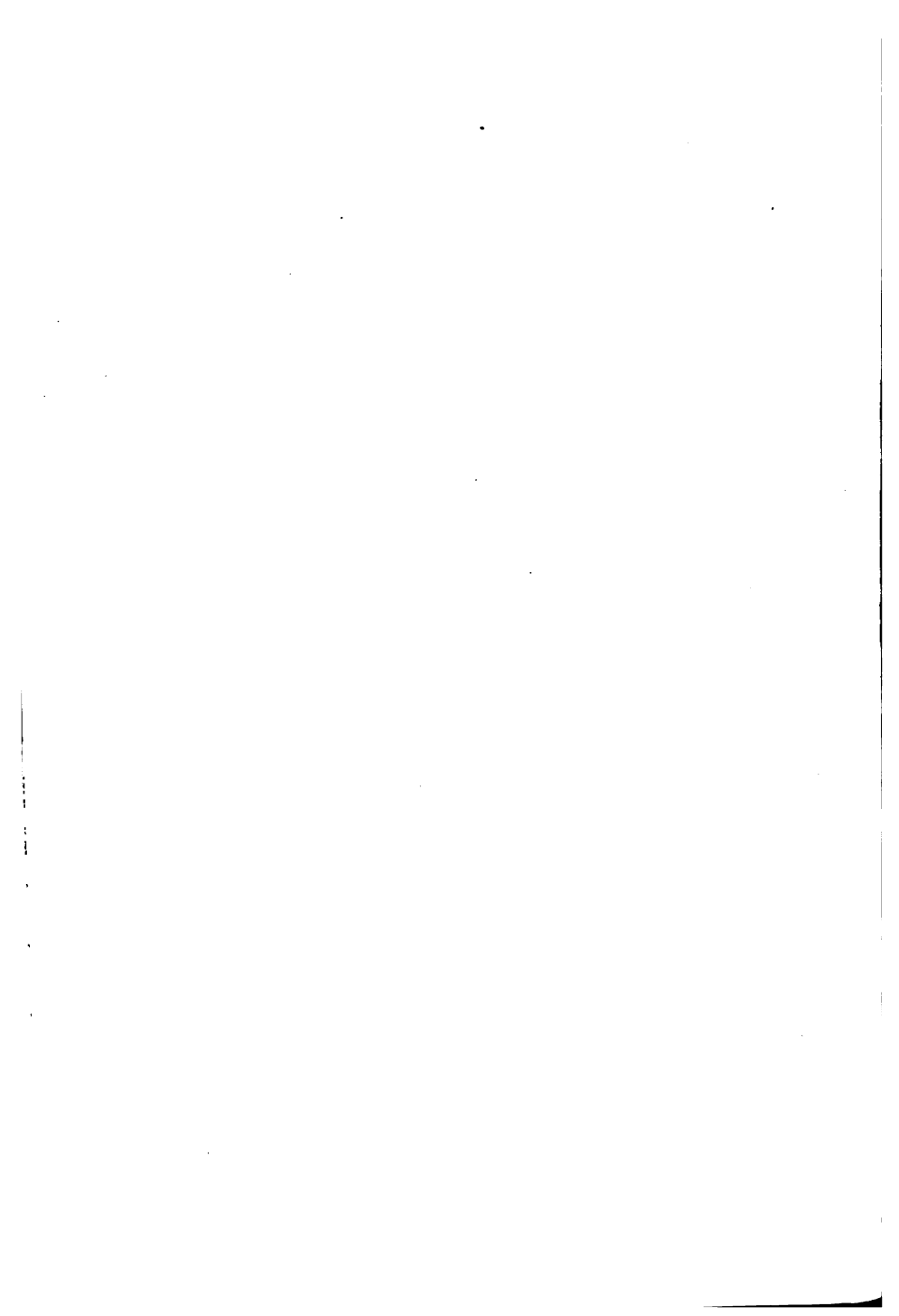
State Normal School, Edinboro, Pennsylvania



Rural Practice School

State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire

Fitting teacher training to rural needs



value of immediate and cumulative correction of misstatements wherever controversy arises.

Two years after the survey was finished and the results adopted by the normal schools themselves, a privately circulated official list of conditions needing correction was published without authority as a newspaper "scoop." There was the implication that conditions had not been changed. What was the wiser policy — silence or substitution of information for misinformation? The latter policy was pursued and the misrepresentation promptly ceased.

Again, the year after the survey the director was for partisan purposes severely criticized for having agreed, before the survey report was finished, to help the normal regents follow up the survey's joint recommendations which they had already adopted. Several libelous statements were printed. Was this a time to avoid controversy or to create it and end it by substituting truth for falsehood? Mr. Farmer submitted the facts — the coöperative nature of the study, the repeated notice of such coöperation, the participation throughout by presidents and regents, the interim reports, the adoption of findings, the finishing of the report before going to the normal board. Retractions were promptly printed and understanding replaced misunderstanding.

Controversy is sometimes the only means of avoiding blind alleys and finding open roads. The Wisconsin normal schools, with their eyes open, chose to coöperate, agree, and build rather than to controvert.

8. How Coöperation Was Secured

In July, 1913, Mr. Allen wrote to the Wisconsin state board of public affairs suggesting three different ways of dealing with the normal school survey:

1. Submit the preliminary findings and ask whether conditions disclosed were typical of all schools.
2. Continue as begun until all schools were similarly studied.

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3. Arrange for coöperative study in which the schools themselves should help at each stage.

The coöperative method was urged for reasons here discussed in supporting auto-surveys in general.

The reasons were explained orally by Mr. Farmer. Finally a four-sided coöperation was agreed upon, to be worked out under the direction of Mr. Farmer. The four sides were (1) state board of public affairs; (2) state board of normal regents; (3) state department of public instruction; (4) the normal-school presidents working through a committee of three, consisting of J. W. Crabtree, John A. H. Keith, C. G. Pearse, presidents respectively of the state normal schools at River Falls, Oshkosh, and Milwaukee.

This four-sided coöperation was continued to the end. Informal conferences, advance discussion of plans, interim verbal reports, review of tentative written reports, review of final report, and adoption of recommendations were parts of this coöperation.

9. *Ten Phases to be Surveyed: Outline*

Wisconsin's coöperative survey of eight normal schools began with an agreement by Director Farmer, state board of public affairs, board of normal regents, state department of public instruction, and a committee of normal presidents to study 10 phases of normal-school management:

- I. Service to the state.
- II. Organization of instruction.
- III. Classroom instruction (369 visits, 92 days).
- IV. Effect of instruction, written work, special tests.
- V. Practice teaching.
- VI. Normal department.
- VII. Technical departments.
- VIII. Administration, sanitary conditions, and use of buildings.
- IX. Supervision by regents.

X. Supervision by department of public instruction.

How each phase was to be studied was as definitely outlined in advance as were the findings in the final report. The headings plus subheadings, which are not clearly indicated above in the table of contents, are reproduced here as time-saving suggestions to auto-surveyors.

II. Organization of Instruction

- 1. Numbers of students preparing and not preparing to teach.**
- 2. Subjects taught in the various courses.**
 - a. Prescribed.
 - b. Elective.
- 3. Supervision of classroom instruction in the normal department.**
 - a. By whom?
 - b. In what departments?
 - c. Methods of supervision — whether by classroom visits, consultation between supervisors and teachers, other methods.
 - d. Follow-up work and results of supervision.
- 4. Tests of classroom instruction by supervisor, via**
 - a. Stenographic notes of recitation.
 - b. Tests to measure results of recitation.
 - c. Formal examinations of students in subjects taught.
- 5. Method of determining what shall be taught.**
 - a. By board of regents.
 - b. By president.
 - c. By instructors.
 - d. By faculty in conference.
 - e. By combination of above.

III. Classroom Instruction

1. **Character of recitation — whether**
 - a. Lecture.
 - b. Quiz.
 - c. Reports on previously assigned topics.
 - d. Topical recitation.
 - e. Written recitations.
 - f. Other.
2. **Character of questions by teachers — whether**
 - a. Thought provoking — appealing to judgment.
 - b. Calling for facts — appealing to memory.
 - c. Related and grouped around definite topic.
 - d. Suggesting the answer — leading, pumping.
 - e. Calling for “yes” or “no.”
 - f. Irrelevant, unrelated.
 - g. Indefinite, vague.
3. **Character of questions by students — whether**
 - a. Thought provoking — indicating awakening interest in relation to other facts.
 - b. Calling for information related to lesson.
 - c. Immaterial or irrelevant.
 - d. Lacking.
4. **Character of student responses — whether**
 - a. Fluent topical recitations.
 - b. Choppy — words, phrases, incomplete.
 - c. Incoherent.
 - d. Not meeting question — guessing.
 - e. Failing to answer.
5. **Character of recitation material — whether**
 - a. Confined to text.
 - b. Text supplemented by reference material.
 - c. Within student's comprehension.
 - d. Related to student's experience.
 - e. Adapted to student's future needs as a teacher.
 - f. Worth while — not dealing with non-essentials.



Testing cattle

State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin



Prospective teachers build blacksmith shop

Platteville

Application of subject matter to life

6. **Teacher's part in recitation — whether it**
 - a. Requires independent thinking by student.
 - b. Requires student to organize material.
 - c. Utilizes student's experience.
 - d. Shows how to use material in solving present or future problems or in doing present or future work as teacher.
 - e. Stimulates student's initiative.
 - f. Develops student's resourcefulness.
 - g. Requires coöperation of students.
 - h. Is definite and well directed, or rambling.
 - i. Clears up student's difficulties.
 - j. Is formal, mechanical, routine.
7. **Students' part in recitation — whether they**
 - a. Have clear idea of purposes of lesson.
 - b. Test their own solutions.
 - c. Act and think on their own account.
 - d. Coöperate with instructor and classmates.
 - e. Persist in getting desired results.
 - f. Differentiate between essentials and non-essentials.
 - g. Organize their material.
 - h. Are self-reliant.
 - i. Seem well grounded in previous work.
 - j. Are really interested.
 - k. See relation and application of material to present or future teaching problem.
8. **Application of subject matter to life — whether teacher applies subject matter.**
 - a. To general problems within students' experience.
 - b. To classroom problems found (1) in past experience as students or teachers; (2) in normal-school instruction; (3) in model-school instruction; or (4) in probable future experience.

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9. Lesson assignments — whether

- a. Definite and clear.
- b. Related to last lesson recited.
- c. Students are prepared to attack it intelligently.
- d. Formal — from textbook only.
- e. By topics or problems.
- f. Hastily made at dismissal.
- g. Omitted entirely.

10. Personality of instructors and relations with students.

Visits were made to 369 classes, almost always in company with a representative of the normal school or of the state department of instruction. Every instructor whose work was studied and described was visited during at least three class periods. In three schools stenographic reports of recitations were made and carefully analyzed. Out-of-class conferences were held with instructors, ranging from ten minutes to over an hour. Written work of students was examined and analyzed; in certain cases, special tests were given students to supplement information gained in class observations.

IV. Effect of Instruction on Students

Incidental tests of investigator; examination of student notebooks; analysis of answers to final school examinations; analysis of special tests prepared by the survey and submitted to the graduating classes at the end of the spring semester. In all the tests given by the investigators questions and problems were framed to test not only the student's knowledge but also his ability to apply knowledge gained in school to the solution of practical school problems.

V. Practice Teaching

1. Organization

- a. Use of city schools for practice teaching.
- b. Practice school connected with the normal.

- c. Supervision by (1) principal; (2) assistant supervisors and principals; (3) critic teachers; (4) teachers of special subjects.

2. Practice teaching by students

- a. Number of weeks assigned each student for practice teaching.
- b. Grades to which each student is assigned.
- c. Method of supervising student-teacher.

3. Coöperation between training school and normal department

- a. In coördinating theories about teaching as taught in the normal department and as practiced in the grades of the practice school — whether relating to subject matter, methods of instruction, classroom instruction, or classroom administration.
- b. In formulating courses of study for the grades.
- c. In using the training school as laboratory to illustrate lectures on theory and practice.

Fact base of report Conferences with presidents, supervisors, practice teachers; records of teaching assignments; reports of supervisors; analysis of courses of study used in the grades; questionnaires submitted to teachers, stenographic reports of classroom work.

VI. Normal Department

1. Analysis of courses of study to determine

- a. Proportion of courses offering academic instruction that parallels work done in grades, high schools, colleges, and universities.
- b. Proportion of courses offering professional training.
- c. Proportion of each subject offering professional training.

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VII. Special Departments

- 1. Purposes of courses offered**
 - a. Training in technical subjects for people who will not teach.
 - b. Ability to use manual training or domestic science as pedagogical material in the grades.
 - c. Training teachers in technical subjects for schools that demand standards of efficiency set by business or industry.
- 2. Forces that insure the standard of efficiency which will meet the requirements of the occupation for which this training prepares**
 - a. Work of supervisors.
 - b. Correlation with business and industrial corporations.

VIII. Administration of the Normal School

- 1. Students' records**
 - a. Attendance.
 - b. Discharge.
 - c. Scholarships.
 - d. Health.
- 2. Teachers' records**
 - a. Academic and professional experience.
 - b. Classes and subjects taught.
 - c. Hours given to teaching.
 - d. Hours given to non-teaching assigned activities.
 - e. Hours given to other school activities.
- 3. Records showing fitness of students for teaching**
 - a. Number dropped during course because of apparent physical or mental unfitness.
 - b. Number granted diplomas not entitling holder to teach.

- c. Records of aptitudes and abilities of individual students.
- 4. Tabulation of the ages of students
- 5. Tabulation of the length of the student's teaching experience prior to entrance in normal school

IX. Supervision by Board of Regents

Analysis of regents' meetings; reports of board of visitors; conferences with regents and faculty; answers to questionnaires.

X. Supervision by Department of Public Instruction

Analysis of regents' meetings; reports of board of visitors; questionnaire to state superintendent; conferences with state superintendent and state inspectors.

10. *Questions Fitted to Different Audiences*

Separate lists of questions were sent to

- a. Presidents.
- b. Principals of training schools.
- c. Teachers of normal departments.
- d. Critic teachers of normal departments.
- e. Normal-school graduates.
- f. All teachers in Wisconsin except in one-room rural schools.
- g. Entering students with examinations in grammar, arithmetic, United States history, and geography.
- h. General information tests to all normal-school students in residence.

The reason for questions fitted to each audience is obvious. Even if the bulk of the questions permitted printing them in one questionnaire, there is an advantage in the direct, fitted appeal. Diffusion of interest is prevented.

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"Consciousness of kind" operates to facilitate or to obstruct response to questions for the same reason — and in similar ways — that it prompts and vitalizes section meetings at teachers' conventions or special journals for different subjects.

II. *Anonymity of Answers Guaranteed*

To emphasize the impersonal character of the survey this assurance was given:

Every one answering this questionnaire will be protected in the following manner: upon receipt of this questionnaire with replies thereto the page containing the name of the person writing answers, name of school and department, will be detached and the questionnaire numbered. By this method it will be impossible for any one but the director of the study to identify any set of answers. This is done in order that every individual may answer with the utmost freedom.

12. *The Public's Agents Sponsor Questions*

Questions were signed, not by the survey director alone or by the surveyor plus normal presidents, but also by the official representatives of the public which inaugurated the survey.

FRANCIS E. MCGOVERN, *Governor*,
Chairman State Board of
Public Affairs

THEODORE KRONSHAGE,
President Board of Regents
of Normal Schools

C. P. CARY, State Superintendent Public Instruction

J. W. CRANTREE, President River Falls Normal School

JOHN A. H. KEITH, President Oshkosh Normal School

C. G. PEARSE, President Milwaukee Normal School

} Committee of
presidents ap-
pointed by the
executive com-
mittee of the
board of re-
gents.

ROBERT A. CAMPBELL,
Secretary State Board
of Public Affairs

WILLIAM KITTLE,
Secretary Board of Regents
of Normal Schools

A. N. FARMER, Director of Study

Obviously the signature of no one individual inside or outside a normal school could have been as effective as were the above signatures when appended to the request for coöperation, which was worded as follows:

It is earnestly desired that every one connected, directly or indirectly, with the normal schools of this state may join heartily in this study.

The executive committee of the board of regents of normal schools has requested that the study be made; the presidents are anxious that the schools increase their usefulness to the state; the state superintendent has expressed his desire to coöperate.

This is an appeal to you as a faculty member of a normal school to give this study the benefit of your observation, study and experience. No one is more likely to know the actual conditions — not only those that help but those that hinder — than the teacher who is dealing first hand with the training of normal-school students.

You may not see the value or importance of some of the questions asked. All, however, are essential.

Each point has been separately passed on by the special committee appointed to coöperate in this study.

Kindly answer every question and be generous in furnishing the facts called for as well as any other information you may consider important and helpful.

All parties to the survey should join in signing requests for information. Wherever possible supervisors and faculty should be enlisted at the outset.

13. Deciding What to Ask

Disagreement about what to ask ought of course to precede, not follow, a survey.

Unfortunately most surveyors have received criticism too late to influence their questions.

The time will come when scientific opinion will be appealed to while questions are in the making instead of after reports are issued and it is too late to lock the barn door.

The referendum of the plan for this handbook elicited from many teachers and trainers helpful suggestions and criticisms. The outline of the handbook on *Self-Surveys by Colleges and Universities* was sent to over 200 colleges and was similarly fruitful. The questions for the University of Wisconsin survey were sent to a number of educational leaders outside of Wisconsin, after being approved by department heads, officers, regents, alumni, Wisconsin college presidents, editors, etc.

Had the United States Bureau of Education submitted its plan for studying Iowa's three higher educational institutions for outside criticism, some one would certainly have suggested that teacher trainers be included among the surveyors of teachers' colleges; that the average occupancy of classrooms cannot be discovered by adding the maximum and minimum occupancy and dividing by two, etc.

For five reasons it helped the Wisconsin survey to have the cooperation of normal-school authorities in framing questions:

1. The build-as-you-survey principle was invoked. Officers would hardly avoid using in their own work questions which they helped frame.
2. Criticism of the questions after the survey by those surveyed was made practically impossible; having joined in framing questions, they could not convincingly maintain that survey results were vitiated by inadequate questions.
3. The benefit of insiders' intimate knowledge of the conditions to be surveyed was secured at the most critical stage, and many mistakes were avoided.
4. Teachers were naturally reassured when they knew that their own officers had joined in asking questions.
5. Surveyors were introduced to schools as agents of

and sympathizers with the system they were to survey rather than as outside experts or exponents of some abstract theoretical standard.

Although the now famous Oberlin questions were never answered, the unanimous testimony is that in merely working over facts to be elicited, the faculty gained notably from the first step in an auto-survey.

Those to be surveyed should, wherever possible, be invited to join in deciding what ground is to be covered and what specific questions are to be asked.

It is unfair to a school to let it even appear that a survey of it is being made by Professor A or Expert B or by the president, without including the faculty as surveyors.

14. Confidential Statements Specially Guarded

Oral statements in confidence were accepted, and written statements marked confidential were sometimes destroyed or again copied so as to eliminate the handwriting, then keyed to source, and filed separately.

There is a prejudice among officials generally against confidential or anonymous statements.

This prejudice is less reasonable than the instinct of self-preservation or of altruism which prompts a statement in confidence.

No survey is complete which does not invite and protect confidence. It is not fair to request or to permit confidential statements unless sponsors provide against disclosure.

15. Making Tabulation Easy

Much survey work is practically wasted because the information is not so gathered that it can be easily analyzed and used. Tabulation difficulties must be anticipated. From several mistakes made by the normal-school survey the University of Wisconsin survey profited, thanks to Director Farmer's help in connection with the latter.

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Name, position, date, time required to answer, should be called for on the outside sheet. Unless writers state time spent on answering, many will forget and later report hours for minutes.

Loose-leaf questionnaire. The normal-school survey questionnaires were first sewed, and then later had to be cut in order that answers to the same question by different persons could be kept together. Only exceptionally would there be use for all of any one person's answers.

Loose leaves (punched and kept together in transit by staples) make it easier for the answerer to use a typewriter, and to make a copy as many wish to do.

Clear directions should be given in writing, and if possible supplemented orally; e.g., answer every point of each question. If you leave any question unanswered, it will be necessary for us to resubmit it. If you cannot give the information called for, write "I don't know."

Space left for answers. The number and completeness of answers depend upon the ease of answering. By leaving space for answers it was made unnecessary to copy the question in order to answer it. Profiting from the normal-school study, the university survey left sometimes an inch, again three inches, again a whole page and up to six blank pages. These blank spaces paid big dividends.

Questions specific and factored. Specific questions (In what positions and for how long in each have you taught?) bring specific answers, where general questions (Have you taught before?) bring general, if any, answers. Factored questions bring factored and usable answers (Does teacher's questioning call for yes or no?) Unfactored questions place answerers at a disadvantage (How is the teaching?). They are not sure what the questioner has in mind. Where an unfactored general question may have eleven elements or factors (above, p. 21), the answerer is apt to compromise by answering but one of the eleven questions. Finally, when it is too late it is found that unfactored answers to unfactored questions are not comparable and that 10 or 100

answerers have talked about different things when answering the same question.

Significant distinctions in questioning. Out-of-state was separated from in-state. 1 to 5, 6 to 10, etc., were used where tabulators often make difficulties for themselves by writing 1 to 5, 5 to 10, etc. "No answer" or "unusable answer" must be provided for with respect to every question and every paper.

When counting length of training, for obvious reasons fractional years were given — $1/6$, $1/3$, $1/2$, $2/3$. Pin or spot maps were used to locate districts. Answers to examination questions were marked right, wrong, vague, no answer. Teaching experience was stated by individual years — 1, 2, 3, 5, 7 — and later grouped, instead of recording in one column all years of 5 or less or years between 6 and 10. Academic training was shown in 14 divisions to insure usable units of inquiry.

Positions of graduates and non-graduates were classified and separated. Excellences of teaching method were first analyzed on page 19, and then marked by degrees: not at all, slight, medium, notable, not noted.

Serial numbers for answers. As soon as answers came in each person was given a serial number; each of his sheets was given that same number. If at any time it became necessary to assemble all answers by one person, this could be easily done. Serial numbers might be stamped on original questionnaires before sending out, in order to advertise the use to be made of them.

Classification of answerers. Obviously the use made of an answer, its helpfulness, and its significance depend largely upon the position and responsibility of the answerer. Instructors' replies were kept separate from supervisors' replies and these from presidents' replies. A full professor's answer was kept separate from a new instructor's answers. At times replies were reclassified to separate training-school replies from the normal-department replies.

Answers of a feather together. Answers to each question

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were kept together in packages and studied together — a great economizer of time and energy.

Preservation of material. The answers with all working papers were filed with the state board of public affairs — a valuable laboratory for research.

Tabulation sheets. For want of enough attention to the headings for tabulation sheets, much work had to be done a second time.

Generally speaking, in statistical studies too little analysis is made before the tabulation headings are drawn. Experience taught the importance of the following:

1. Dates when begun and finished.
2. Initials of persons recording and supervising.
3. Clear headings for sheets, for items recorded, and for columns.
4. Space for checking (✓) and for inserting new items as study progresses.
5. Provision for totals up and down and across sheet.
6. Different-colored inks to help separate detail from summary.
7. Space to note persons not answering or other special facts like answers not comparable.
8. Space for percentages.
9. Checking currently instead of waiting until work is finished.
10. Recording key to tabulation on the tabulation sheet as aid to tabulator, checker, and reviewer.

16. *Averages Tabooed*

General impressions, general questions, and general suggestions were, with averages, avoided, as will be noticed in the following pages. For children's tests the number of times each question was answered wrong or not answered was stated rather than the average grades. What particular things were said in recitation were noted rather than its



Planting bulbs

Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, New York



Individual instruction

Brooklyn

City-trained teachers learn by doing

1914

1914

1914

average result. Individual salaries too low rather than average salaries were discussed. Seldom can administrative use of averages be made by teacher trainers.

17. *Thirty Weeks of Field Study*

Had the Wisconsin survey never visited a school it would have gained invaluable information from written answers to different questions by 8 presidents, 264 faculty members, and 3900 normal-school students. These questionnaire results were of course field-study results so far as self-surveyors described field conditions.

To these field results contributed by insiders the surveyor added 30 weeks — from 2 to 6 weeks at each school — in classes, at meals, in homes and business offices, on walks — sometimes as host, frequently as guest or again as inspector — always as listener and surveyor.

Iowa's state college for teachers was surveyed by the United States Bureau of Education in two days spent mostly at a hotel. Future surveyors will undoubtedly be required to base their reports primarily and specifically — and leisurely when self-surveyors — upon field observations made of the living organism at work.

18. *369 Classroom Visits*

Recitations numbering 369 were visited by the Wisconsin survey, including 70 recitations on professional subjects, such as psychology, pedagogy, school management, history of education. Usually the local president and the president of another normal school accompanied the survey director.

Visiting of public-school classes by university or state department inspectors is accepted as a matter of course as not only warranted but necessary.

In some quarters — fortunately waning in strength — the visiting of normal-school or college classes is held to be unnecessary, unprofitable, unwarranted, vicious.

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Wisconsin's normal-school officers not only welcomed classroom visiting but participated in it.

Description, not valuation, was the aim and result. From the findings cited here in later sections, the value of specific descriptions of recitations observed may be judged by the reader.

For Memoranda by Reader

IV

MAKING SELF-SURVEYS BUILD AS THEY GO

19. *First Fruits of the Wisconsin Survey*

ONCE having begun self-analysis on a large scale, the regents, presidents, business agents, and faculties began also to vie with one another in answering questions, in making experiments, and in effecting improvements.

Interim reports were made to regents, who did not postpone remedial action until the survey report was published. At regents' meetings, regents and presidents talked over conditions and suggestions with the survey director. More formal advance steps were in fact taken before the final report than afterwards.

Among first fruits of this coöperative survey ten are mentioned:

1. **The entire policy of training teachers was changed.** Schools were "authorized and directed" to separate into groups students who are preparing to teach in different grades of public-school work. Primary, grammar, and high-school departments were created to enable each normal school to give the specialized training necessary to prepare students to do most effective work in the particular field in which they expect to teach. This action was taken immediately following a report by the secretary of the board urging such action. The presidents joined in the recommendation, and the regents were unanimous in their action.
2. At the February, 1914, meeting of the normal regents, the so-called "Latin," "German," and "English" courses which had persisted for 21 years, were abolished.
3. The two-year college course was abolished in three of the normal schools.

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4. **The organization of classes which enrolled fewer than ten students was prohibited except by special arrangement with the committee on course of study.** This action was taken when it was learned that out of 827 classes taught during the second semester, 1913-14, 156 enrolled fewer than 10 students. Of these 6 classes enrolled two students; 9, three students; 20, four students; 20, five students; 27, six students; 23, seven students; 25, eight students; 24, nine students.
5. **The entrance requirements of the rural-school course were raised.** Beginning September, 1915, one year of high-school work or its equivalent was required for entrance. In September, 1916, two years of high-school work was required. It was the expressed wish of the board that entrance requirements to this course should be gradually increased so as ultimately to put it on the same basis as other high-school graduate courses.
6. **Actual teaching experience in some public-school system was set up as part of normal-school training at the June, 1914, meeting of regents.** The plans then in operation in two schools in Wisconsin, as well as those of schools outside the state, were discussed. Two other schools submitted plans which provided for practice teaching in the public schools and which were approved by the board.
7. **The board authorized the presidents of normal schools to permit faculty members to coöperate with the department of public instruction in visiting and inspecting public schools.**
8. **The board also directed each principal of a training school to spend five days during the school year 1914-15 in studying the work of the public schools, the schools to be visited to be named by the president.**
9. **Impersonal facts supplanted geographical influence in determining the need for a new normal school.** A



State Normal School, Clarion, Pennsylvania

Public-service motive always unfurled

thorough survey was made of demand for teachers-training facilities, railroad facilities, etc.

10. **Self-surveying** became the rule as the basis of local management, of distribution of duties among nine normal schools, of budget estimates and budget appropriations, etc. The spirit of inquiry bred a spirit of coöperation within faculties, among presidents, and between the normal schools and the public.

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V

ADMINISTRATION PROBLEMS

20. *Concrete Description of Administrative Facts*

WHAT actually goes on, day by day, is the final test of normal-school program and organization.

The self-surveyor, if he is wise, will give his first thought to what is going on in his own school or class, and will not worry about outside theories and standards, until he has collected photographs of his own school or class at work. After he has listed conditions obviously needing attention, there may come a time when outside experience will help answer his questions. Wherever possible, question should precede answer.

Only in books or addresses do conditions which hamper administrators come all carefully "organized" and tied up in pink ribbons. Only in books and addresses are they corrected with a sweep of the hand and an eloquent injunction. On the contrary, each condition needing attention must be given individual attention.

The high and low spots here listed as having been found in one or more of Wisconsin's normal schools are helpful only if each one is read by itself with the question: *Where if at all, how generally and how often is this duplicated in my school or class?* These earmarks are frequently followed with blanks for self checking (✓) after *Y...* (yes) *N...* (no) *?...* (not yet known—to be inquired into). For every check after *Yes* it will help if there is filled out separately a blank specifying *Where*. Every check after *?* means study is needed.

21. *Testimony from and about Presidents*

Periodic inventories of normal-school problems, plans, difficulties, and attitudes are as useful as periodic inventories of supplies and cash.

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Until a survey or some other special challenge comes, administrators are prone to carry plans and analyses as driftwood — flotsam and jetsam — to clog the mind, rather than as timber for building.

The following testimony from presidents illustrates what is meant by build-as-you-go coöperation in surveying. It will help self-surveyors to ask: *Are these conditions, standards, ideals duplicated in my school?*

10 important problems confronting the normal schools

1. To train teachers so they can do well the work of a teacher when they go out to teach. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. To fix ideals and standards and impress students that those who stay in teaching should continue their studies in the subject matter and practice of their profession. *Y... N... ?...*
3. To get into closer touch with the public schools so as to adapt work to their needs. *Y... N... ?...*
4. To connect the work of the school with the work of the home and the community. *Y... N... ?...*
5. To make training work more nearly like the actual conditions which the teacher will meet. *Y... N... ?...*
6. To affiliate with public schools so that teachers in training may do part of their work under practical conditions. *Y... N... ?...*
7. To develop courses for teaching special subjects — agriculture, commerce — for principalships, and for supervisory positions. *Y... N... ?...*
8. To train rural-school teachers. *Y... N... ?...*
9. To organize more effectively the courses of study, including facilities for practice teaching. *Y... N... ?...*
10. To secure appropriations sufficiently large to compete with the world in securing instructors and in equipping buildings. *Y... N... ?...*

12 important duties and functions of presidents

1. To choose strong teachers, considering character, scholarship, training, experience, skill, health, coöperative spirit, loyalty. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. To outline policies and make suggestions as to how each policy may be effectively carried out. *Y... N... ?...*
3. To represent and establish ideals of character, scholarship, and skillful teaching and to impress these ideals on faculty and students. *Y... N... ?...*
4. To have general supervision over methods of instruction as well as subject matter taught in the various classes. *Y... N... ?...*
5. To keep the different departments working harmoniously and coöperatively toward a common end. *Y... N... ?...*
6. To shape conditions so that every one may be as comfortable and happy as possible, working up to his best. *Y... N... ?...*
7. To inspire members of the faculties with the desire to contribute just as much as possible toward the welfare of every student in their classes. *Y... N... ?...*
8. To aid teachers see their work in its relation to the larger purpose of the work of the normal schools. *Y... N... ?...*
9. To know their students thoroughly and intimately so far as possible, in order to get from them their best work and to know best how to place them after graduation. *Y... N... ?...*
10. To keep in touch with the schools from which students come and to which graduates go as teachers. *Y... N... ?...*
11. To know, interpret, and mold public opinion in regard to education. *Y... N... ?...*
12. To be a factor in educational literature. *Y... N... ?...*

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Fitting teachers to the schools that need them

From their written testimony to the survey it was evident that the presidents generally had no definite or organized plan for studying and determining the needs of the state for trained teachers. All had visited the public schools for periods varying from two days to three weeks. In addition they reported special investigations into the following subjects:

1. Extent to which superintendents and principals were desirous of getting grade teachers in music, drawing, manual arts, sewing, cooking.
2. Problems of the training-department of the normal school.
3. Qualifications which superintendents and principals look for when selecting teachers.
4. Domestic-science needs and possibilities.
5. Special training needed for assistants in country training schools and for teachers who are to do the professional work in high schools in which teachers for rural schools are trained.
6. Normal schools' daily schedule of daily programs; number and length of terms and vacations, and courses of study.

Self-surveys by presidents

1. Demand of school principals for teachers who can teach special subjects in their grades.
2. Special training in domestic science needed for assistants in county training schools and for teachers who are to do professional work in high schools.
3. Qualifications which principals and superintendents look for in their teachers.
4. Commercial work in the various schools of the United States.
5. In 1916 a coöperative survey of six counties by River Falls Normal School, six county superintendents, and school service bureau of state department.

Presidential initiative encouraged

1. Freedom that makes for initiative and originality is given each president in the management of his school. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. The board of regents determines policies, but the president works these out in his own way. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Courses of study, methods, textbooks, and outside activities are entirely subject to his control, and, in coöperation with the business agent, he selects supplies, materials, and equipments. *Y... N... ?...*

Faculty meetings made occasions for profitable discussions

1. Grading of students.
2. Character of teaching done by graduates.
3. Observations of president in other schools.
4. Courses of study for the training school.
5. Relation of university and normal school.
6. Improvement of student manners and ideals.
7. Living conditions of students.
8. Self-examination of teachers.
9. Sex hygiene in schools.
10. Normal extension work.

Coöperation expected between normal and training departments

After admitting that coöperation had not yet reached the point "which all good normal presidents dream of" and was sadly lacking in several instances, the presidents mentioned the following results already achieved from coöperation:

1. Reciprocal stimulation. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. More careful study of problems by both groups. *Y... N... ?...*
3. General "loosening up" and a freshening of the conception of training. *Y... N... ?...*

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4. Uniformity in the two departments as to terminology, definitions, etc. *Y... N... ?...*
5. Normal-school teachers kept awake and in touch with actual schoolroom grade work. *Y... N... ?...*
6. Centers work of the normal school in the training school. *Y... N... ?...*
7. More practical handling of the professional courses. *Y... N... ?...*
8. Less duplication of work. *Y... N... ?...*
9. More definiteness and more practical work in both departments. *Y... N... ?...*
10. Better understanding of the work of each by the other, resulting in greater respect and more appreciation. *Y... N... ?...*

Conditions which make president's work difficult

1. A constant effort to adapt the course of instruction to the special needs of the schools of the state has led to continuous readjustment in the courses of study. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. We lack sufficient freedom; we ought to send our teachers out much more. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Too much time is required for office routine—not enough is left for the higher problems of the school. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Office and outside work leave no time to visit prospective teachers when they are at work or to help them sufficiently after they are engaged. *Y... N... ?...*
5. The regents have used me so much at Madison that I have not taken time when at home to visit classes.
6. Instructor complains that matters of discipline are reported to the president; teacher is usually summoned to the president's office with the student; case is argued by student and teacher; matter usually laid on the table or left unsettled so far as the teacher is concerned. *Y... N... ?...*

7. Faculty members in some cases openly organize into factions to carry a point or embrace another individual or group. *Y... N... ?...*
8. Unfortunate personal relations exist between some of the presidents and a very considerable proportion of their faculties. *Y... N... ?...*
9. The final choice of a new president rests with the local regent. This method of selection leads to lack of confidence in the president and in the regent, both by faculty and populace, because of suspected political or personal motives. If the president keeps on good terms with the resident regent he is safe, no matter how incompetent. If the resident regent becomes antagonistic he can thwart the president, no matter how efficient. *Y... N... ?...*
10. Inadequate salaries are paid to our teachers, especially to critic teachers in training schools. *Y... N... ?...*

Among kinds of help which instructors reported receiving from presidents were the following:

President helps

1. Visits new teachers frequently. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Often teaches subjects. *Y... N... ?...*
3. As a result of observation, suggested and helped install methods of keeping account of chemicals used, laboratory materials on hand, etc. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Makes constructive criticism, suggests definite ways in which faculty member can build up and improve himself at points where he fails. *Y... N... ?...*
5. Everlastingly backs up his teaching force. *Y... N... ?...*
6. Coöperated in beginning a library specifically directed toward grade problems. *Y... N... ?...*

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7. Receives weekly reports of students failing in their work, then holds conference with these students, usually suggests to student a conference with instructor also. Y... N... ?...
8. Held consultations as to the best disposition to be made of a weak student. Y... N... ?...
9. Helps athletic coach understand temperament of candidates for athletic work. Y... N... ?...
10. Suggested visiting classes of other faculty members to observe their teaching methods. Y... N... ?...
11. Advised division of classes so that more mature are separated from less mature students. Y... N... ?...
12. Improvement of students was reported by an instructor as the result of conferences with president. Y... N... ?...

22. *Administration Changes Suggested by Instructors*

1. Elect a vice-president or dean to help with administrative details.
2. Have expert inspectors employed by the regents suggest ways and means of improvement.
3. Have more department heads.
4. Combine work under fewer departments.
5. Give departments more responsibility.
6. Give those who teach prospective teachers direct responsibility in the training school.
7. Emphasize "standardization" of work less.
8. Have more frequent conferences of faculty members.

23. *Faculty Meetings are Symptoms*

The last thing that many surveyors would ask questions about is the faculty meeting. Yet the atmosphere, methods, and results of faculty meetings in college or normal school

furnish a far more reliable index to educational needs than does even the course of study.

To prevent faculty meetings from becoming perfunctory is difficult. Officers who meet one another in corridors, assembly, or club several times each week do not take seriously for its own sake a special official gathering, weekly, fortnightly, or monthly.

Something vital to each faculty member must happen at faculty meetings or else they seem a bore; boredom acts like morphine, the victim requires increasing doses to be happy or tolerant.

The first faculty meeting of the year is the most important hour for officers and faculty. Unless a running start in team work for a coöperative program is obtained on that day, it will usually never come during the year. To insure something of special value the following aids are suggested in addition to those by faculty members mentioned later:

1. At the first meeting of the year a plan for the year will be outlined after the results of the last year have been summarized. This of course cannot be done unless last year's results have been studied during the summer, which in turn can best be done if the classification of each year's experience begins its first week.
2. A calendar for the first meeting will be distributed in advance with outline of reports to be made at the meeting and of all unfinished business carried forward from last year, summary of last year's work by standing committees, and names of next year's standing committees subject to presidential appointment.
3. Questions known to be in the minds of faculty will be opened up.
4. Parliamentary rules will be rigidly enforced to prevent waste of time and ennui, including what ought to be a rule, that nothing will come before the whole

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faculty which does not require the whole faculty's attention.

5. Minutes will be promptly sent out to those who do not attend as well as to those who do.

For subsequent faculty meetings the following method of procedure has been found helpful:

1. Calendars are sent out in advance with digest of reports to be made, of unfinished business, of proposals ready for submission; when no one has a monopoly of knowledge, there is not likely to be monopoly of discussion.
2. Matters not on the calendar will not be considered unless by vote of an overwhelming majority, perhaps a unanimous vote.
3. No business may come before the whole faculty which can be properly attended to by executive officers or faculty committees.
4. The time of the committee of the whole is reserved for educational questions and questions of policy.
5. Instead of "inbreeding" when naming committees — i.e., instead of putting the same few on all committees — opportunities and responsibilities for service are widely distributed, with fewest possible "repeaters" and with no "rounders"; special effort is made to enlist the services of younger faculty members on committees.
6. Committees of one frequently take the place of committees of five or seven.
7. Reports of committees state the fact base of study and of recommendation.
8. A faculty suggestion box is conducted to elicit suggestions and complaints (including anonymous ones) from individuals, that such suggestions may be taken up by the proper committees or eventually by the entire faculty when their importance justifies it.
9. Provision is made for current analysis of the school's



Teaching organized play

State Normal School, Plymouth, New Hampshire



Practice pupils plant trees

Plymouth

Arbor Day and everyday essentials

experience, for comparison with other schools, and for digest of publications whereby all faculty members can benefit from the reading of each.

10. A division of reference and research is maintained to utilize suggestions or to make investigations that require more time than it is feasible for faculty members to give.

Of faculty meetings Wisconsin faculty members wrote feelingly. Typical answers follow, with five criticisms, three approvals and five suggestions:

1. They seem to me to be an entirely unnecessary evil.
2. We kill a lot of time on nothings. There are too many preconceived fixed ideas on the part of the powers that be or else taboo topics. When we incline to get down to business, discussion is stopped. We have little free, frank discussion of matters vital to real investigation or progress.
3. Faculty meetings are a historic convention and seem to be held because they have been. I have seen the president detained for an hour or more when he wished to close, and the faculty held by inconsequential questions which were of no interest to the whole faculty.
4. So far as administrative affairs are concerned the time is frequently wasted.
5. We faculty members don't do much of the talking in faculty meetings; it is our business to listen.
6. I have heard some splendid, inspiring addresses from men not in school work who were visiting us from time to time.
7. The meetings have given me an insight into the policy of the school in general, and individual faculty members in particular.
8. They keep fresh the professional outlook and familiarize us with the newest theories and methods. We are kept in touch with each other's departments. We

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are kept informed in regard to the general business of the school.

9. Stimulating sometimes, other times give me ennui. They have never been as businesslike as I'd like to see.
10. A definite line of study should be taken up and pushed to a definite end.
11. I should prefer to have fewer meetings and more careful preparation for each meeting.
12. 90 per cent. of the business in faculty meetings could be settled by the president in private conference with the person who proposes it, and all business with few exceptions could be done by a small council of seven or eight members much more quickly and better than by the whole faculty.
13. The routine work of a faculty meeting should be done quickly or else given into the hands of a committee with real power to act. There should be free, honest, frank discussion of problems vital to student welfare, to our courses of study, to scholarship, etc.

Illustration of faculty team work is furnished by Connecticut's 40 state supervisors of elementary schools. During their 1916 summer school for "first time" teachers, 23 different committees reported on subjects referred to them:

Agriculture.

Defectives and deficient.

Educational guidance.

Efficiency, attendances, promotions.

English and language teaching.

Expenses and use of time.

Forms and records.

High schools.

Inter-town competition.

Military training.

Model schools.

Music, drawing, and penmanship.

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Normal schools.
Plans for progress.
Reports and conferences.

Results of the test in English and reading.
School buildings.
Summer schools.
Surveys, tests, and examinations.

Teachers' and supervisors' meetings.
Teachers' meetings 1916-17.
Textbooks.
Training and ranking of teachers.

The reports were printed, with one or two typewritten exceptions, circulated in advance, and finally taken up in general discussion.

24. Budget and Expense Headings

When estimating the expenditures for the next biennium and for each year within the biennium, the Wisconsin normal-school presidents work according to schedules furnished by the state board of normal regents. The regents in turn have since 1915 been subject to the financial control of a central board of education.

Given the headings on the opposite page, any normal school can prepare a bookkeeping system, a monthly and annual report system, and a budget estimate system.

Charges should be classified, recorded, and posted according to these headings, expanded to fit local conditions.

Monthly reports should show the expenditures under each, including amounts from stock and bills outstanding.

Annual reports should show expenditures, including amounts from stock and bills outstanding, by months, and totals under each.

EXPENDITURE HEADINGS FOR TEACHER TRAINING SCHOOLS

Wisconsin's forms include all outstanding bills for goods or service used during a period. With these headings any training school can keep cumulative totals for a year or comparisons for different quarters or years.

Acct. No.	Object of Expenditure	Acct. No.	
1	Capital Expenditures:	62	Physical Plant
	Total	6211	Salaries of Engineers..
111	Land	6212	Salaries of Janitors ..
112	Land Improvements	6221	Fuel
13	Machinery	6222	Light and Power
14	Educational Apparatus.	6223	Water
15	Furniture and Furnishings	623	Sundry Supplies
16	Hand Tools	624	Sundry Expenses
17	Library	63	Instruction
18	Museum	631	Salaries of Teachers..
7	Maintenance: Total	632	Text Books
71	Land and Land Improvements	633	Fuel and Power for Instruction
72	Buildings and Fixtures ..	634	Sundry Supplies
73	Machinery	635	Sundry Expense
74	Educational Apparatus ..	64	Library
75	Furniture and Furnishings	641	Salaries of Librarians ..
76	Hand Tools	642	Newspapers and Periodicals
77	Library	643	Sundry Supplies and Expenses
78	Museum	65	Student Welfare
6	Operation: Total	651	Student Health
61	Administration	652	Entertainment and Lectures
611	Salaries of Officers	653	Athletics
612	Salaries of Clerks and Stenographers	634	Organizations
613	Traveling Expenses	66	Summer Session
614	Stationery and Office Supplies	67	Insurance
615	Postage	68	Undistributed Expenses
616	Telephone and Telegraph ..		Bills outstanding [preceding year] — charged to
617	Express, Freight and Drayage		Accumulated Balance ...
618	Printing		Total Expenditures ..
619	Sundry Supplies and Expenses		

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Budget estimates should show for all headings:

1. Appropriations for each.
2. Expenditures for each.
3. Unexpended balance or deficit for each together with
4. A comparative statement which gives corresponding facts for at least one preceding year, plus
5. Estimates for the succeeding year with columns to show
6. Increase or
7. Decrease requested, with
8. Reasons.

Since the survey many improvements have been made in managing normal-school finances. Budget requirements by the central board of education have led to comparative studies within and between Wisconsin normal schools. For some years to come it may safely be assumed that the best first step for those wishing help in ordering normal-school finances will be to address State Board of Normal Regents, Madison, Wisconsin.

Much difficulty — confusion and discontent — is caused by failure to work on the budget plan, i.e.,

1. A careful estimate of work to be done and its cost.
2. Reasons for increases, decreases, and changes of program which will not require verbal lobbying or awe-provoking explanations.
3. An allowance in advance for work and cost agreed upon, with explicit provision for miscellaneous and contingent services that will not force penny-wise pound-foolish practices.
4. A record of obligation incurred to show correctly whether the budget program is being adhered to.
5. Compulsion upon the management to adhere to the agreed-upon plan.
6. Provision for departure when emergency, or unexpected release of spending power, justifies the trustees or finance board in (a) transferring funds accrued

or not needed within the budget, (b) seeking new funds, or (c) incurring a deficit.

7. A clear record showing in advance of departure from the budget plan the reasons offered for departing from it.

Budget questions for self-surveyors would include these:

1. Is there a budget ... or just an appropriation? ...
2. Is the money budget based upon a work budget?
Y... N... ?...
3. Is a continuous haphazard scrambling for presidential or trustee favor the price of success in building up a department or securing salary increases? Y...
N... ?...
4. Is the president's attention for want of an agreed-upon program diverted throughout the year from school work to school politics and hand-to-mouth planning?
Y... N... ?...
5. Are salaries increased all together as part of a year's plan ... or whenever the incumbent can persuade trustees or president? ...
6. Is the year's plan based upon careful estimates ... or tactical guesstimates? ...
7. Do the estimates show clearly when and why increases and decreases are estimated? Y... N... ?...
8. Are increases or decreases "mumbled" or slurred or otherwise concealed in the theory that regents or legislature or president will be unreasonable and captious ... or are they unescapably advertised? ...
9. Are this year's unexpended balances frankly shown ... or concealed by comparing estimate with total allowance? ...
10. Does the accounting system prevent ... or permit ... changing expenses for a purpose short of funds to a purpose that has a balance? ...
11. Do the estimates clearly distinguish operating expenses from capital outlay? Y... N... ?...

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12. Is the estimated work program divided into its principal parts, as per page 54, separating normal from training departments, supplies from coal, salaries from repairs? *Y... N... ?...*
13. Do the trustees receive printed ... or typewritten ... or verbal ... estimates and explanations ... how long in advance of necessary action? ...
14. Does the ultimate appropriating body — state legislature — county commissioners,— city board — receive printed ... or typewritten ... or verbal ... estimates, with full explanations ... or figures without explanation ... long enough in advance ... or too late for study? ...
15. Is the public given full details about the estimates — and the tentative budget? *Y... N... ?...*
16. Is the appropriation bill voted after adequate consideration ... or in an eleventh-hour rush? ...

Faculty participation in budget making is a subject of inquiry for self-surveyors.

1. In what ways does the faculty participate in preparing estimates? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Are all faculty members invited to suggest needs not yet met? *Y... N... ?...*
3. Are uniform questions sent to departments? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Are these questions so worded that the departments feel free to list all that they believe is needed? *Y... N... ?...*
5. Do blanks call for showing the probable cost of each suggestion, with reason for each departure from this year's work and cost? *Y... N... ?...*
6. Are departments represented in the review of estimates? *Y... N... ?...*
7. Are the rejections and adoptions which are submitted to the regents or trustees sent in tentative form to departments in time for further appeal with evidence of need? *Y... N... ?...*

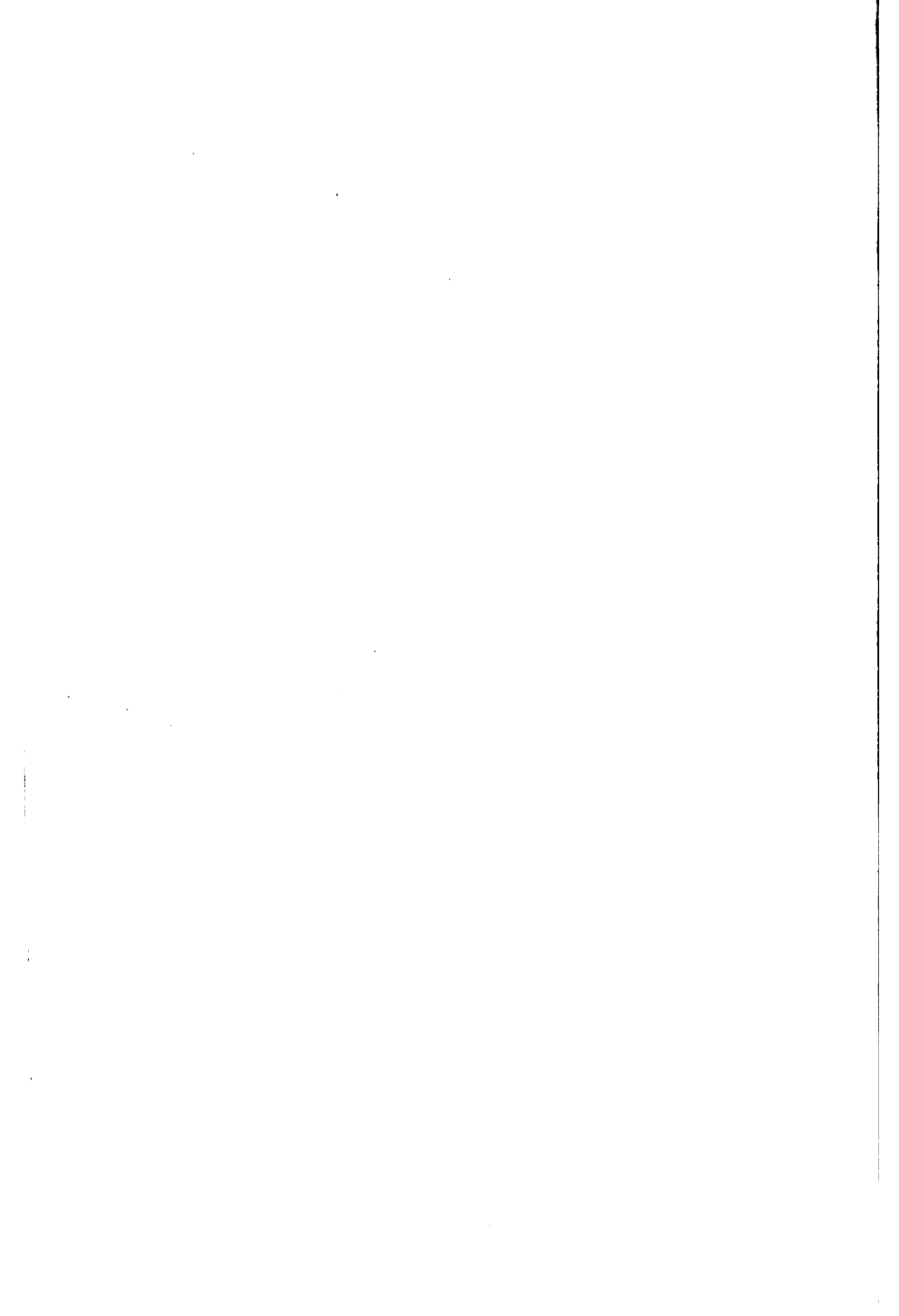


Practice pupils school gardening State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire



Practice pupils, 8th grade, dramatizing their own William Penn story Keene

Vitalizing practice-school instruction



8. Is the final budget published for faculty examination?
Y... N... ?...
9. Are post-budget charges from budget allowances during the year made known to all departments? *Y... N... ?...*
10. Is the general feeling that the budget is a plan for securing even and equitable support ... or a ruse for shifting normal responsibility from officers to regents or legislature? ...

25. Teacher-Training School Reports

Annual reports help keep alive the right attitude toward continuous self-examination.

Nowhere are they more needed than in those states where a central board is responsible for several different normal schools.

The right kind of report pays for itself five times: (1) in the planning; (2) in the making; (3) in the reading by regents and faculty; (4) in the opportunity it affords to inform and enlist the public which benefits; (5) in the help it gives other training schools wanting to learn from every other school's experience and questions.

Neglect of adequate reporting has heretofore characterized normal-school management.

Nowhere are report possibilities and obligations more neglected than by colleges of education — including those particular colleges which have written most convincingly about annual reporting by public-school superintendents.

Typical defects of educational reporting in general as well as in normal-school reports include the following. This is one place where checking will pay immediate dividends.

1. Unattractive cover. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Delay in addressing the audience — reports come too late and reporters take too many pages getting started.
Y... N... ?...

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3. Chart or page crowded. Y... N... ?...
4. Type too small. Y... N... ?...
5. Absence of photographs, or too few. Y... N... ?...
6. Lack of graphic illustrations or too few. Y... N... ?...
7. Failure to list advance steps. Y... N... ?...
8. Failure to list needs. Y... N... ?...
9. Failure to make recommendations. Y... N... ?...
10. Failure to state how much recommendations would cost. Y... N... ?...
11. Failure to base recommendations on facts or to relate them to facts. Y... N... ?...
12. Failure to support recommendations by facts and to interpret actions. Y... N... ?...
13. Using generalization rather than concrete facts, often when concrete facts are available. Y... N... ?...
14. Too much is placed on the few charts used. In correcting this fault the Child Federation of Philadelphia has made special progress in exhibits which can be found described in pamphlets issued by the Federation and to be had upon request. Y... N... ?...
15. Charts are explained too much and need too much explanation. Y... N... ?... Obviously the purpose of a diagram is to help carry the load — it adds to the load if the story needs interpretation, as moving picture concerns quickly learn. Y... N... ?...
16. Live exhibits have been used too little, such as children in relay races in arithmetic, or giving demonstrations of trade work, or doing regular classroom work. Y... N... ?...
17. Cartoons and humor are too rare — the Russell Sage Foundation has "legitimized" them in its reports on Cleveland schools. Y... N... ?...

18. Too much is told at a time; reports must be issued in instalments, as by New York City, Cleveland school survey, Winona Normal, etc. Y... N... ?...
19. Interest is exhausted by too many salutations from subordinates to chiefs and by allowing department heads to "ramble, ramble, ramble." Requiring brief lists of advance steps, studies made, obstacles and needs will help cure this defect. Y... N... ?...
20. There is too much writing for the benefit of dead predecessors or distant professional colleagues and too little writing to those who furnish the children or students and pay the bills. That accounts largely for the rareness of self-study, auto-study, analytical comparative review of what education is costing and how its product compares with its opportunity. Y... N... ?...

A pioneer discussion of school reporting was *School Reports and School Efficiency* (Snedden and Allen), issued in 1907. More recently, under Commissioner Snedden's leadership, a collaborative report by superintendents of Massachusetts, listing defects and making constructive suggestions, has been issued by the State Department of Education. Among many extracts from Commissioner Snedden's annual reports for Massachusetts the eleven which follow are so helpful that they suggest the need for having annual reports digested for use of normal schools:

1. To correlate normal-school work with public schools, conferences have been held at the various normal schools.
2. Too few normal-school teachers are keenly aware of actual conditions in (Massachusetts) rural and urban schools, and they are far too unready to indicate specific desirable improvements.
3. Every normal-school teacher should be employed and paid for twelve months each year — at least six weeks

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should be spent in professional preparation, summer school, travel, or teaching in vacation schools.

4. In Fitchburg, Salem, and Lowell the local schools pay for the practice schools what they would pay for otherwise educating the same children.
5. Teaching of small groups by normal-school students should begin very soon after entering, so that they would have a basis in experience for their theoretical work.
6. Use of local public libraries is too little taught by normal schools.
7. Teachers in service should be trained; correspondence work is given based upon teacher's work with children; each teacher should be observed at work at least once. [Rather, at least five times?]
8. Standard service — not to exceed 20 periods a week in actual teaching — not over 30 periods per week for all kinds of service including laboratory, consultation — not including teacher's preparation.
9. Practice work outside the normal is not sufficiently supervised in three (Massachusetts) normal schools.
10. Special reports were required in 1914 from each normal-school principal.
11. Too much and too exalted teaching is given normal-school students.

Stated affirmatively, the normal-school report should account for its plant, fund, and pupils as specifically as do the best reports for public-school systems.

In addition normal schools need for themselves and their supporters other information via reports descriptive of problems and conditions peculiar to a training school:

1. Previous teaching and field experience of additions to faculty.
2. Previous teaching experience of students.
3. Schools, community, and vocations from which students come.



Sketching from life

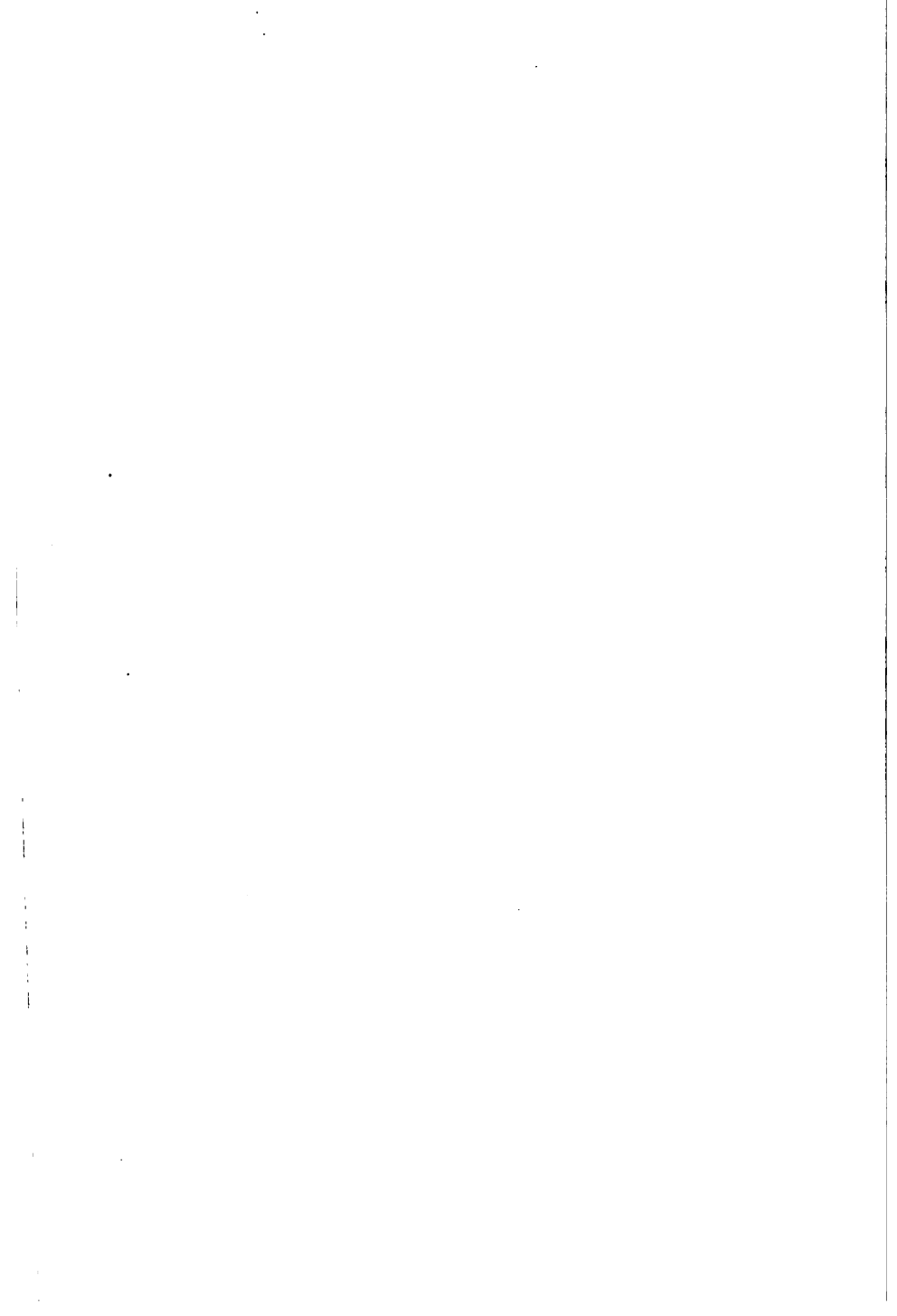
Brooklyn Training School for Teachers, New York



Kindergartners' race

State Normal School, Winona, Minnesota

Life for teacher training is available everywhere



4. Schools and communities and other occupations to which students — graduates and non-graduates — go.
5. Progress made by graduates.
6. List of year's pedagogical advances.
7. List of experiments under way.
8. List of special needs.
9. List of costs for carrying out president's or trustees' recommendations.
10. Extent and character of practice teaching, particularly where rural or urban schools are part of the normal school's teaching laboratory.
11. The teaching load of each instructor — showing not only total number of student hours but each teacher's registration in each separate class.
12. Territory not covered: (a) number of high-school graduates in territory contributory to normal who do not come to the normal; (b) number of students not retained until graduation; (c) number of graduate teachers who go out of the state and the district; (e) comparison of progress of the non-normal teachers with normal graduates.
13. Work of the employment bureau showing number who applied, number placed, number placed through other agencies, character of positions found, etc.
14. Suggestions of possible applicability to each school received from reports of other normal schools, educational literature, state and national meetings of educators, etc.

An exceptional laboratory opportunity for future teachers is offered by the steps involved in making the annual report; it will help vitalize instruction and rivals even practice teaching as educational training.

No person should be licensed to teach even a kindergarten class who cannot and does not, with enjoyment and profit, read official reports of local and state school affairs.

Every normal-school graduate should be interested in the

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art of reporting annual summaries of her own school work.

The expense of reports is often a stumbling block. Regents either limit or prohibit the expense for publishing reports. No president, however,—and no faculty,—can afford to be without an annual summary of what they have tried to do and what they have found it difficult to do and what they have succeeded in doing, even though they must pay for their own reporting. Trustees will not begrudge the small cost of reports containing evidence of auto-surveys after they see that reporting adds to the effectiveness of money spent on salaries and buildings.

26. *Student Progress Records*

“Teachers teach as they have been taught rather than as they are taught to teach.” It is quite as true that teachers study their pupils as they themselves are studied, apply the efficiency records that are applied to them, try the minimum essentials or standard scales that are tried upon them.

Hearing or reading about tests and records is not enough — any more than hearing or reading about efficient teaching is enough. Practical demonstration is necessary — training teachers and supervisors must test student progress and locate student aptitudes and difficulties while students are looking so that students will feel before they know how to do it.

One of the shortest short cuts for a survey or self-survey of normal schools and training classes is questioning as to progress records used in both normal and training departments:

Regarding individual scholarship record cards

1. Is there an individual record card? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Does it combine educational and health facts? *Y... N... ?...*

3. Is it intended to last the entire course? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Does it call for all facts noted in *Record Aids in College Management*? *Y... N... ?...*
5. Is it of convenient form? *Y... N... ?...*
6. Has it provision for totals and summaries? *Y... N... ?...*
7. Are its results studied and used by teachers, supervisors, and presidents — i.e., is irremediable physical defect like deafness used as basis of refusal to certify or even to assign to practice teaching? *Y... N... ?...*
8. Are prospective teachers' strong and weak points specifically noted? *Y... N... ?...*
9. Are standards applied as rigidly to students who are to become teachers as to pupils in the training department? *Y... N... ?...*
10. Are students required to understand these records via making and using them in the training school? *Y... N... ?...*

Regarding professional records

1. Is there a complete record of the prospective teacher's professional work? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Is this record on a card or in a book? *Y... N... ?...*
3. Is it cumulative? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Are marks of all teachers kept as one record? *Y... N... ?...*
5. Are personality and ability factors that make for and against teaching efficiency printed or typed so that each item must be accounted for? *Y... N... ?...*
6. Is there space for checking the degree in which each element is found — i.e., notable, much, medium, slight? *Y... N... ?...*
7. Is each element marked? *Y... N... ?...*

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8. What evidence is there that the information recorded is used to direct the student's study, play, and teaching?
9. Does the critic teacher mark specifically? *Y... N... ?...*
10. Are there specific printed questions for the critic teacher for recording what she observes, corrective measures she advises, and results of later observations? *Y... N... ?...*
11. Does the critic teacher note the dates of observation and of conference? *Y... N... ?...*
12. Are there specific questions for teachers in charge of classes taught by practice students, including particularly public-school teachers whose classes are used for practice teaching? *Y... N... ?...*
13. Are the instructions for observation and practice teaching specific and "factored"? *Y... N... ?...*
14. Are the reports of observations checked, studied, and used as the basis of corrective measures by instructors? *Y... N... ?...*
15. Is this record shown to, or specifically cited for, those seeking a teacher? *Y... N... ?...*

Regarding age progress records

1. Are the records in the training school up to the standard of progressive public-school administration? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Does each teacher make a dot analysis of each of her own classes to show which children need special attention because of late entrance, failure to win promotion, or both? *Y... N... ?...*
3. Are facts called for by half grades? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Are facts called for by half years? *Y... N... ?...*
5. Is each child compared with his own opportunity

SHALL EVERY TEACHER MAKE A DOT HERE FOR EACH OF HER PUPILS?

Sample
Grade 5 Advanced

Age	1½	2	2½	3	3½	4	4½	5	5½	6	6½	7	7½	8
7														
7½														
8														
8½														
9														
9½														
10														
10½														
11														
11½														
12														
12½														
13														
13½														
14														
14½														

COMPARING EACH CHILD WITH HIS OWN SCHOOL OPPORTUNITY

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rather than with some hypothetical average? *Y... N... ?...*

6. Is provision made for each child to go forward as rapidly as he is able? *Y... N... ?...*
7. Is responsibility for a child's retardation studied? *Y... N... ?...*
8. Is the record used for fitting instruction to the needs of the individual pupil or only for publishing averages?
9. Do practice teachers learn to fill out these records and to analyze them? *Y... N... ?...*

Regarding record of failures

1. Is there an individual specific record for each child to show time and causes of failure by subjects? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Is there provision for advance notice to pupils and to parents? *Y... N... ?...*
3. Does the record call for evidence of personal follow-up of the first notice by teacher and principal? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Do practice teachers use these cards to test their own work? *Y... N... ?... How?*

Regarding minimum essentials

1. What minimum essential tests are used regularly in the model school?
2. What tests have been devised by the school itself?
3. What tests are applied to incoming students?
4. At what point in the normal course are students taught the use of minimum essential tests and standard scales?
5. Is it possible to graduate without having applied these scales to oneself or to classes in the model school? *Y... N... ?...*

Regarding alumni

1. Is there a complete record accounting for every former student? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Does this record distinguish between graduates, non-graduates, advanced students, and those with little contact with the school? *Y... N... ?... How?*
3. Does it show where alumni have taught? *Y... N... ?...*
4. Does it show teaching positions by grades? *Y... N... ?...*
5. Does it differentiate size of school? *Y... N... ?...*
6. Does it call for salary? *Y... N... ?...*
7. Do summaries separate those teaching out of the state, those teaching in the state, and those not teaching? *Y... N... ?...*
8. Do cards show academic work after graduation? *Y... N... ?...*
9. Does the record of alumni or of the employment bureau show aptitudes, weak points in scholarship and teaching, and success in outside activities? *Y... N... ?...*
10. Is this record used for testing the school's success? *Y... N... ?...* For asking questions about school problems and needs? *Y... N... ?...* For giving after-graduation instruction and help to teachers? *Y... N... ?...*

To prepare prospective teachers for the factored test of personality which public schools and colleges are certain to apply during the next generation, it behooves teacher-training schools to apply such factored tests to pupils before admission and during their courses.

Superintendent J. W. Rutherford of Clarion, Pennsylvania, not only uses the following analysis but reports it to parents every six weeks:

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Factoring Pupil Gains and Needs for Parents Every Six Weeks

ATTITUDE TOWARD SCHOOL WORK	1 Step	2 Step	3 Step	4 Step	5 Step	6 Step
Wastes Time
Work Is Carelessly Done.....
Gets Too Much Help.....
Shows Improvement
Very Commendable
RECITATIONS						
Comes Poorly Prepared
Seldom Does Well
Inattentive
Promotion In Danger
Capable of Doing Much better....
Work Shows a Falling Off
Showing Improvement
Very Satisfactory
CONDUCT						
Restless
Inclined to Mischief.....
Annoys Others
Shows Improvement
Very Good
ATTENDANCE						
Number Days Absent
Number Times Tardy

Pupils in Manhattan's large intermediate and junior high school, P.S. 62, are marked by their teachers according to analyses devised by Principal Leon W. Goldrich, (pp. 69, 70).

27. Experience and Educational Qualifications of Instructors

It is not enough to know that normal-school instructors have degrees of bachelor, master or doctor; these degrees are too often badges of disqualification — academic evi-

PUPIL'S ANALYTICAL RECORD

THE SEWARD PARK INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL — NOW JUNIOR HIGH

LEON W. GOLDBACH, Principal

Name.....	Grade.....					Shop.....				
	1	2	3	4	5	REMARKS:				
INTELLECTUAL	Judgment.....	PHYSICAL DEFECTS NOTED:				
	Reasoning.....					
	Perception.....					
	Imagination.....					
	Leadership.....					
EMOTIONAL	Interest.....					
	Concentration.....					
	Co-operation.....					
VOLITIONAL	Adaptability.....					
	Accuracy.....					
	Speed.....					
	Finished Product.....					
SUMMARY FOR MONTH										

A, Superior; B+, Excellent; B, Good; C, Poor; D, Bad

dences of time spent out of touch with public and normal school problems.

The backgrounds and foregrounds of instructors depend more upon where they learned their a b c's and where and how they prepared for college than upon what collegiate degrees they bear.

Similarly, what they studied and did in undergraduate or postgraduate work to prepare them especially for normal-school instruction is more significant than any academic ranking for scholarship or semester credits.

Many positions in Wisconsin's eight normal schools were filled by men and women who had too little knowledge of the elementary school and who had been chosen largely for academic attainments rather than for ability as teachers or appreciation of the primary purposes of teacher training.

Finally, it is indispensable for self-surveyors to learn and consider what teaching and other field work normal-school instructors have done, for how long and with what degree of responsibility.

I. Educational qualifications need, therefore, to be tabulated — most of the data should be already available on the application blank or faculty records — under these headings:

1. Rural schools attended from to
2. Elementary schools attended from to
3. Secondary schools attended from to
4. College attended from to
 - a. Date of graduation or degree or total credits earned
5. Practical work during and between college terms
6. Postgraduate course taken
 - a. Teachers' institutes — years total weeks
 - b. Summer schools — years weeks
 - c. Regular sessions

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- d. Graduate course — years
- e. Thesis subjects
- f. Investigations
- g. Field work other than teaching
- h. Special courses or field work intended to prepare directly for teaching teachers
7. Scholarship recognition, honors, position offered, etc.

II. Previous teaching experience. Facts regarding previous teaching experience including even private tutoring will be tabulated by self-surveyors under headings to include the following:

1. Rural schools — location, from to, number of pupils, subjects taught
2. Grade schools — location, from to, number of pupils, subjects taught
3. High schools — location, from to, number of pupils, subjects taught
4. Training class in high school
5. County training school
6. Other normal schools
7. Colleges or universities, general
8. Departments of education
9. Private tutoring
10. Other

III. Previous experience as supervisor or administrator. How and what a normal-school instructor can give to a class in school management will obviously depend upon whether and how much he or she has managed the kind of school that is talked about in class. Other things being equal, that person will have most to give, as instructor or supervisor, who has had previous successful experience in supervision and administration. In fact, even unsuccessful experience in administration is probably better than no experience for a teacher.

For use in learning what a school needs, in comparing its



Clean-up squad

State Normal School, Plymouth, New Hampshire



Pupil-made apparatus

State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin

Showing teachers how pupils learn via doing

20
 19
 18
 17
 16
 15
 14
 13
 12
 11
 10
 9
 8
 7
 6
 5
 4
 3
 2
 1

advantages with those of other schools and in establishing definite standards for the selection of future teachers, the self-surveyor will report upon the faculty's previous experience in supervision and administration, the following, with supporting detail for each position held:

Position held	School	From	To	Portion of time
Principal Supervisor Critic	LeRoy	Sept. '05	June '07	$\frac{1}{4}$
	Private	Sept. '07	June '09	$\frac{2}{8}$
	Newark	June '09	June '17	$\frac{2}{8}$
	Normal			$\frac{2}{8}$

28. *The Teaching Load*

How normal-school faculties devote themselves to professional ideas and self-improvement depends upon how many different things they have to do in how many hours.

The ambition of every college instructor is to keep his fixed appointments with students down to a maximum of six hours, preferably four hours, and any college instructor who must keep twelve periods a week with students feels overburdened and sidetracked.

For normal-school instructors, twelve hours is still "a thing of beauty and a joy forever"; "the vision of things hoped for; the substance of things not seen." The more experience the instructor has, the fewer hours he feels he can meet classes without jeopardizing his chances for recognition as a scholar. As shown on page 60, Commissioner Snedden of Massachusetts has felt radical when proposing for normal teachers a maximum of twenty periods, not to mention a host of "community chores" as numerous as a county parson performs.

Not only is the teaching load inequitably distributed as between college instructors and normal-school instructors, but within normal schools themselves the load is inequitable on the theory, "To him that hath, it shall be given." Those

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For Memoranda by Reader

who are able to carry the least number of hours, the younger instructors, are usually given the maximum number.

This question of demand upon the instructors' time is, in the actual running of a normal school, more important to education because more acute and recurrent than is even the question of normal-school curriculum or teaching methods. If the teaching load is inequitable, if the distribution of time is scattered and confusing, it does little good to talk to normal-school instructors about standards of teaching or content of course.

Time distribution will be taken up early by a self-surveyor, first, because the information is needed for intelligent consideration of many other problems, and secondly because the instructors will see its bearing upon equity of burden and of compensation.

The first step toward future equity is information which will show actual present distribution. Not the least important reason for this information is because it must be had before funds enough can be obtained to warrant the distribution of teaching and other loads, according to the needs of education rather than according to the willingness — or necessitousness — of normal-school teachers.

Around the teaching load is a quasi-teaching fringe of duties or loads which bear heavily but inequitably upon faculty members. When asking for faculty use of time it should not be necessary for self-surveyors to be satisfied with estimates or guesstimates; instead there should be actual time records over a typical fortnight. So obvious is the bearing of these facts upon equitable salaries and equitable loads that the normal-school faculty will readily furnish at least the facts which describe their work for the school.

Time use should be reported under the following heads, which for local reasons must for many schools be still further subdivided; if asked to report also what work they would like to do that is made impossible by their fixed assignment, faculty members will see in this table further pos-

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sible relief. To call for $\frac{1}{4}$ hours will help the members fill out the table with a minimum of overstatement or understatement.

These facts once in hand it is possible to decide equitably how many hours of laboratory teaching should be counted as offset to one hour of lecture or recitation and how many more periods a mathematics teacher can meet a class than are safe or fair for a teacher of English composition, who must correct written work out of class.

Thus far only the distribution of calls upon time has been learned. Two persons with unequal load may consume equal time. It is necessary, therefore, to have a second table filled out to show the pupils' periods or credits for which an instructor is responsible in addition to his instructional duties which likewise must eventually be reduced to equivalents in instruction hours. To approximate the actual burden of the teaching load, facts should be filled in under the following headings:

Subject	Class	No. pupils	Weekly periods	Pupil periods weekly

As stated above, the load as shown by pupil hours should be modified by the earlier table showing time used. The load of directing the reading of ten pupils is vastly greater than hearing ten pupils recite upon textbook or lecture; reviewing ten papers in English composition is more arduous than reviewing ten papers in chemistry. Conducting a quiz or recitation weighs more heavily than does reciting a prepared lecture. On the other hand, it often happens that a teacher of chemistry or a lecturer on psychology will spend more time and worry than will a teacher of English composition. Therefore, it is necessary to read the teaching load with an eye to the total time spent on instructional duties and another eye to the extra-instructional load, which he

TIME REQUIRED BY AND GIVEN TO NORMAL SCHOOL DUTIES BY FACULTY MEMBERS, EACH DAY OF WEEK

	<i>Sun.</i>		<i>Mon.</i>		<i>Sat.</i>		<i>Total</i>	
	hrs	$\frac{1}{4}$'s	hrs	$\frac{1}{4}$'s	hrs	$\frac{1}{4}$'s	hrs	$\frac{1}{4}$'s
1. Classroom teaching								
a. By lecture								
b. By recitation textbook								
c. By quiz on reading								
or lecture								
2. Laboratory teaching								
3. Field-work teaching								
4. Supervision of teaching..								
a. By faculty members.								
b. By students								
5. Conference with faculty...								
a. Within own depart-								
ment								
b. With others								
6. Study room								
7. Individual conference with								
students								
a. At regular office hour								
b. At home or after class								
8. Reviewing students' papers								
9. Preparing for class work..								
10. Total on instruction.....								
11. Clerical work								
12. Playground or athletics..								
13. House duty, chaperonage..								
14. Faculty meetings								
15. Administration								
16. Regular committees								
17. Church or chapel								
18. Special assignments								
19. Total non-instruct. duties								
20. Professional reading.....								
21. Graduate work								
22. Literary work								
23. Community work								
24. Private tutoring								
25. Recreation								
26. Other free time								
27. Total personal								
28. Grand total								

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is required or permitted to carry. Merely making this analysis will cause self-surveyors to question the amount and incidence of many loads. Out of this questioning will come the elimination of many loads, the reduction of others, and the redistribution of most loads. For example, faculty committee work and special assignments will be redistributed so as to draw upon more members more of the time and upon more powers of each member.

Student-clock-hours is the term used by the commission which surveyed Iowa's State College for Teachers to describe the teaching load. The total of student-clock-hours for an instructor was reached by multiplying the number of students in each class by the number of periods a week and then adding the totals for all classes.

An average of 300 student-clock-hours for a department was suggested by the commission as about right.

That such differences exist in teaching load, as above mentioned, was admitted, though the differences were not listed.

Self-surveyors will do well to avoid the student-clock-hour basis. The accurate facts for each subject and each instructor will make equitable distribution of load possible. Ironing out discrepancies in student-clock-hours and averages will continue discrepancies.

How does it help an overburdened instructor to be told that the average of student-clock-hours for each department is about right or is already too low?

29. *Salary Facts*

Every faculty will be glad to have surveys call early for salary facts. The quickest way is to ask at once for the payroll, with title, position, and years of service written opposite each name; but that is only the beginning.

It is not enough to compare salaries of one school with corresponding salaries of another school, although that is necessary. It is easier for a teacher to endure the fear or the certainty that her profession, as a whole, is underpaid

when compared with private business or that her colleagues as a body are underpaid when compared with the other normal schools, than it is to endure the fear or the certainty that she is being discriminated against at home.

Salaries should be compared with

1. An actual weighted teaching load.
2. Previous experience.
3. Other home salaries for similar loads.
4. Outside salaries for similar loads as in the high schools and other normal schools.
5. Outside salaries in other walks of life.
6. Known competition among teachers.
7. Known demand of other schools for each teacher.
8. Proved drawing power of each teacher.
9. Teacher's efficiency as set forth in specific detail.

Any salary schedule which fails to discriminate between proved efficiency and proved inefficiency or less-efficiency will disclose upon examination numerous inequalities. Nothing can help fit salaries to teaching loads like the frank admission on the part of teachers that the load actually carried to its destination by an efficient teacher is much greater than the load of the same number of hours and the same number of pupils carried by an incompetent or less competent teacher. The first step, therefore, to the equitable distribution of salaries is that step which aims to describe faithfully the character of the teaching load and the teaching service rendered by each faculty member.

Supplementary questions must be asked in order that the above-mentioned comparisons may be made to include these:

1. Is there a definite schedule with salary increase according to length of service? *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Are all salaries taken up at one time; namely, at budget time? *Y... N... ?...*
3. Under what circumstances are salaries increased between budget times; i.e., during the year?

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4. Are faculty members who obtain invitations from other schools more apt to have salaries increased than those who do not receive such invitations? *Y... N... ?...*
5. What effort is made to distinguish between invitations due to excellent work and other invitations due to talking away from home, or to articles or other self-advertising, or to the aid of friends?
6. How many desirable instructors has the school lost during the last five years because of higher salaries offered elsewhere?
7. What desirable instructors have declined to come because of low initial salaries?
8. What evidence is there that the raising of the standard of salaries has improved the teaching of those already on the faculty or of those added to the faculty?
9. Is the salary of each member known to all of the members? *Y... N... ?...*
10. Is there a tendency to give larger salary rewards for extra-instructional services than for instructional? *Y... N... ?...*
11. In what ways would more liberal salaries for the present teaching staff improve the quality of teaching?
12. Are there local reasons for believing that demonstrably improving the quality of teaching would make it easier to secure funds for increasing salaries? *Y... N... ?...*
13. What is the nature of the arguments which have heretofore been advanced for larger salaries?

While it is probably true that inequitable distribution of salaries within a school will cripple efficiency more than inadequate salaries, it is also generally admitted that in spite of brilliant exceptions inadequate salaries mean inadequate service.

The instructor who gives all he has and the best there is for a third or half less than he ought to be paid is too often



Pupil-made apparatus

State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin



Teaching housekeeping early

Rhode Island State Normal School, Providence

Fads and frills have been legitimized

succeeded by another instructor who is glad to receive the too low salary and is too expensive at any price.

In showing Wisconsin's penalty for too low salaries in normal schools presidents reported facts like the following:

Within three years eight persons refused to come to one normal school because of the low salaries offered; others refused to come even for an interview when they learned the salary offered. In other words, vacancies must be filled from the less experienced and less able. A large number of normal-school teachers leave because of low salaries. Critic teachers especially are underpaid and salaries are inequitable. For example, in one school three critics were graduates of universities, two of them from Teachers College, Columbia University, yet they did not receive as much as the assistant in music or head of the grammar department, neither of whom ever attended a university.

The highest salary paid any instructor in English in the eight normal schools was one who taught three college courses per day plus a course on the "short novel" for students preparing to teach in the public schools.

The most favored normal teachers in the country are those in colleges of education, barring possibly the Chicago Normal College, whose schedules run above college levels for classroom teachers and for supervisors. At a time when Wisconsin normal-school teachers were receiving \$900 and \$1200 for 20 or more periods a week, the state university's teachers in the model high school and in teacher-training courses were being paid up to \$2500 and \$3250. Nor was the difference only in previous training. On the contrary it was one of schedules, irrespective of training and without regard to personal or professional qualification for training teachers.

30. *Educing Fitness, Eliminating Unfitness*

Around and around Robin Hood's barn have we been going in vain attempts to lift education by its bootstraps to

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make changes of method and program or increases in the salaries and equipment atone for deficiencies of teacher material, including the teacher's personality.

Philosophers and philosophies of education have helped us little because college instructors have failed to apply to themselves, as teachers, the tests of personality and of method which must be applied to all would-be teachers before the thing taught or the method of teaching can appreciably be improved.

Typical of current neglect to educe fitness and eliminate unfitness in teacher personality and teacher material is the failure of New York's \$100,000 survey to spend one dollar studying the three training schools for teachers.

Book after book is being devoted to reporting study of child psychology as it affects current education, with little or no effect upon school standards, because they do not help society deal with the elements of fitness and of unfitness in teacher material and teacher personality.

There are three occasions when special inventory of prospective teachers is needed and is possible:

1. Before admission, when applying for admission to training courses in normal school or college.
2. In practice courses, when practice teaching.
3. At time for graduation, when seeking certificate of fitness.

Between times, cumulative records are needed to show what strong and what weak points need attention, and what attention is given them by critic teachers and other supervisors, what improvements are made and what remains to be done, etc.

The two lists of personality factors given on pages 83-84 represent two different methods of approach. Both are given in order to show the contrasts and emphasize the inadequateness of any method of scoring which fails to break up qualities into elements and which allows positive values

To help teachers and supervisors locate their own strong and weak characteristics

Teacher Personality

To help supervisors help where help is most needed

For checking and rechecking by teachers, supervisors, normal schools before admission and during course, would-be employers, placement and guidance bureaus, teachers' agencies and surveyors

Check (✓) after items which describe conditions Use 2 if a further visit is needed before marking

I APPEARANCE OF ROOM

1. ORDER notable fair poor disorderly
2. DECORATION attractive overdone unattractive lacking
3. WINDOWS open—yes no stale
4. AIR fresh fair

II TEACHER'S VOICE

1. PLEASING harsh shrill nagging
2. CLEAR indistinct
3. LOW medium too high

III TEACHER'S PHYSICAL APPEARANCE

1. VIGOROUS passable weak timid
2. HEALTHY healthy but tired anemic sick
3. POISED medium nervous
4. NEAT tolerably bad taste slovenly
5. AT EASE medium embarrassed
6. CORRECT, ERECT POSTURE... stooping, bad habits slouching

IV PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHER

1. PLEASING very tolerably displeasing
2. COURTEOUS moderately little discourteous
3. CAREFUL very little gloomy, sullen
4. INDUSTRIOUS very lazily little
5. KIND very little unkind
6. ENTHUSIASTIC very moderately lacking
7. DIGNIFIED very little undignified
8. SYMPATHETIC very moderately unsympathetic
9. TACTFUL very tolerably blundering
10. STIMULATING very moderately lacking
11. HUMOROUS very moderately little irritable
12. EVEN TEMPERED very moderately little unbecomingly
13. SCHOLARLY very moderately too technical
14. RESOURCEFUL very fair unresourceful
15. SYSTEMATIC IN THOUGHT very tolerably unsystematic
16. STRICT very moderately lax
17. WINS COOPERATION easily fairly antagonizes
18. CONTROLLED very moderately little uncontrolled
19. AMBITIOUS PROFESSIONALLY not yet lacking
20. TEACHABLE quite with difficulty doubtful material

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to offset and obscure deficiency. In applying these tests or suggestions, surveyors should emphasize the fact that the purpose of this analysis is not to keep people out of normal schools but first to make it worth while for the ablest personalities to come to the normal school and then to make possible an earnest coöperation by student and instructor toward building upon the student's strong points and eliminating weak points.

For two years the following codification was used by the Connecticut state board of education in securing through its 35 supervisors specific information with regard to the strong and weak points of teachers in the 100 town school systems under that board's direction.

It is used as score cards for dairies have been used; viz., absolute values are given to qualities, deficiencies are estimated numerically and subtracted from absolute values, and a net value or score given for each group.

The card was temporarily discontinued in 1916 in recognition of the fact that weak points ought not to be ironed out via unclassified net scorings. It is the feeling of supervisors, however, that there was distinct advantage in breaking up each main qualification into the 48 elements here listed. Please compare the method with that of the Teachers Personality chart on page 83, of which many thousand have been issued by the Institute for Public Service.

Connecticut's Codification for Efficiency Tests of Teachers

	Sug- gested Values	Def- iciency	Value
I. Physical	125		
1. Appearance	15		
2. Health — general	25		
3. Voice — articulation	25		
4. Habits — personal neatness	25		
5. Energy	25		
6. Endurance	10		
	—		

	Sug- gested Values	Defi- ciency	Value
II. Intellectual	275		
1. Self-control	25		
2. Enthusiasm	25		
3. Sympathy—tact—common sense ...	50		
4. Diligence—industry—sense of re- sponsibility	50		
5. Adaptability	50		
6. Sense of humor	25		
7. Justice	50		
	—		
III. Administration	200		
1. Regularity at school	25		
2. Initiative	25		
3. Promptness—accuracy	25		
4. Executive capacity	25		
5. Economy of time and energy.....	50		
6. Coöperation with associates and su- pervisors	25		
7. Keeping records	25		
	—		
IV. Professional	1000		
1. Preparation	100		
a. Intellect			
b. Education			
(1) Academic			
(2) Professional training, read- ing, etc.			
2. Interest and attitude.....	100		
3. Valuations	100		
a. Stages of progress			
b. Physical condition of children			
c. Habits			
4. Instruction	300		
a. Definite aim and procedure			
b. Attention and interest of children			
c. Hearing lessons and giving in- struction			
d. Practice and drill form			
e. Organization and presentation of subject matter			
(1) Artistic skill			
(2) Artistic product of recitation			
f. Use and adaptation of the tools and machinery of instruction			
g. Assignment of work			
5. Response to suggestion and direction	200		
6. Discipline—government and direction	200		
	—		

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		Sug- gested Values	Defi- ciency	Value
V. Planning of work		200		
1. Preparation of material.....	50			
2. Continuous preparation daily, weekly plan book	50			
3. School program	50			
4. Study, reading, etc.	50			
	—			
VI. Accomplishment		200		
1. Respect of pupils and community....	50			
2. Stimulation of mental activity—in- telligence	75			
3. School achievement	75			
a. Response of pupils—accuracy				
b. Illustrations—papers				
c. Examinations—progress of pupils				
d. Intelligence				

31. *Use and Non-Use of Buildings*

Competition with normal schools for funds is increasing.

Upon legislators are pressed many alternatives by state university, labor commission, prison board, and friends of good roads.

Upon trustees of private colleges other departments press their needs in competition with the college of education or other training work.

Every dollar secured for buildings is a dollar subtracted from a fund presumably available for personal service. Wherefore it behooves normal schools first to use their present space to the utmost compatible with teaching efficiency, and secondly to have unequivocal evidence as to how it is using its present space.

For every room, including laboratory, auditorium, and office, there should be an up-to-date record showing in the one legible way—i.e., graphically—at which hours of each day the room is not used at all; at which hours it is only partly used; and when it is used to full capacity.

For every vacant hour the reason should be recorded, so that when more buildings are requested no one can success-

fully misrepresent the facts either for or against the new building. The clearer the facts the easier for patrons to see the point at which use becomes unprofitable and disuse profitable. That teacher efficiency and student efficiency are more important than room efficiency, is conceded; facts are needed to show where increased room efficiency would lead to decreased teaching efficiency.

The following card will help assign space and visualize use — it can be quickly made with typewriter:

Building Room..... Capacity 20

Period	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday	Saturday
1	12/20 #####	##### #####	12/20 #####	##### #####	12/20 #####	##### #####
2	##### #####	12/20 #####	##### #####	10/20 #####	##### #####	15/20 #####
3	##### #####	4/20 #####	##### #####	7/20 #####	##### #####	8/20 #####
4	18/20 #####	##### #####	18/20 #####	##### #####	18/20 #####	##### #####

Black is used for non-use rather than for use because it is the black which the eye notes, and which the administrator wants to emphasize as not-yet-used opportunity.

The figures are put in the white spaces to show what part of the capacity is used by each class. It is not enough to know that somebody is in the room — how many are there each hour or what part of the capacity is not used is a necessary question.

In the morning hours this room is used twelve times or half the maximum; by 146 students or 30% of its full capacity of 480.

Self-surveyors cannot afford to use the method commended to colleges and normal schools by the United States Bureau of Education in its report upon the use of space in Iowa's State University, Iowa State Teachers' College, and

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the State College of Agriculture and Mechanics. The formula used was this:

$$\frac{\text{Average occupancy} \times \text{periods used}}{\text{Capacity} \times \text{periods in weeks}} = O T = \text{average use}$$

Even for a single room it is obvious that this formula is incorrect for three reasons: (1) In few instances is the correct average one half the minimum plus the minimum occupancy; (2) the actual average not only fails to describe but misdescribes the actual use and non-use; (3) the average is a futile fact because it does not point out the difference between the possible occupancy and actual occupancy as to numbers and hours.

In testing the method used by the Iowa Survey Commission, one of Vassar's rooms, No. 32 Rockefeller Hall, was used. The maximum occupancy was 56, the minimum was 1; add them and divide by two and we get 28.5, which the United States bureau says is the average occupancy. Many hours, however, this room is occupied by only 3 or 5 students. If the total of persons using this room be divided by the number of hours when used, the actual average is 14.7 or about half that which the Iowa Commission credits. If, however, the total number of persons using this room be divided by the maximum number of persons who might have used the room each hour when used, the percentage of vacancy during partial use is 74%.

The main fact is, however, that the management can use no percentage or no average but must know at what particular hours the room is vacant or partially vacant.

32. *Advertising the Rewards of Teaching*

The most important single question which the self-surveyor or outside surveyor can ask about the normal school is this — **how does it advertise the rewards of teaching?**

Broken into parts, this question calls for subquestions like these:

1. How does the normal school talk to possible students and prospective teachers about the rewards of teaching?
2. Is teaching advertised as a doleful, underpaid, overworked, under-appreciated profession? *Y... N...*
3. Is it advertised as all work and no play? *Y... N...*
4. Is it for the left-overs ... or for the best? ...
5. Is it a last chance ... or the first and best chance? ...
6. Is it a mere money-earning stepping stone to other professions, ... or the best possible ability-testing, character-making introduction into any other profession? ...
7. Is it a mischance to avoid, . . . , or a key to one's own possibilities . . . ?
8. Is it something to do because one needs money, . . . , or because one is entitled to the fullest self-expression . . . ?
9. Is it a profession for altruists, . . . , or for enlightened self-interest . . . ?
10. Is it something to be avoided unless one plans to spend a lifetime on it, . . . , or something to be cherished as the best preparation for a lifetime . . . ?
11. Is it a down-trodden, *Y... N... ?... underpaid, Y... N... ?... and underappreciated Y... N... ?... profession?*

How the rewards are advertised would be shown in

1. President's report.
2. Catalogs.
3. Advertising matter.
4. Letters to parents.
5. Letters to candidates.
6. Public bulletins.
7. Public addresses.
8. Talks of teachers.

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9. Talks at assemblies.
10. Courses in management.
11. General school atmosphere.

Examination of these sources will show whether advertising is calculated to draw or to repel the strongest, most ambitious, most favored personalities into teaching.

Business efficiency we can have to the *n*th degree, but that will not give us efficient normal schools.

Expensive buildings and complete equipment cannot make a great normal school. High salaries for instructors, a small number of teaching hours a week, a small number of students per teacher, unlimited opportunity for practice teaching, complete correlating of normal and practice work — not one and not all of these will give us high-grade teaching nor will courses in education or research, or advanced degrees, of themselves raise the standard of teaching.

No one can teach well enough for himself unless he loves to do it. Whether he loves or dislikes it is a question which must be found out early. Why he dislikes or loves it must be found out early. Teaching is helping others see. It is making it easy for others to understand and acquire and to do and to grow and to enjoy. Whoever is doing these five things is teaching, no matter what may be his or her title or position or business.

Only after the rewards of teaching are clearly formulated and thoroughly advertised is the trainer of teachers really free to set up specifically and unequivocally the high standards of personality, education, and technique which the teaching profession has the right to set up as minimum essentials.

Whether trainers of teachers are aggravating and perpetuating or are exploding numerous fallacies which keep able men and women out of teaching is to be learned, not by looking into textbooks, but by examining the everyday "off guard" practice disclosed. If any one is interested in disproving current misstatements about the rewards of teaching, it is the normal school and school of education.

VI

COURSE-OF-STUDY PROBLEMS

AMONG changes in Wisconsin's course of study the presidents and faculty members suggested the following:

1. Have course of study face more directly toward the public schools, both in content and method.
2. Lengthen course of study so that it avoids narrowness and sends out teachers better prepared for public-school work.
3. Lengthen two-year course for high-school graduates to three years — no curriculum can be made the panacea for insufficient time.
4. Have courses of study, not a course.
5. Make elective element and differentiation more prominent.
6. Make the course of study point more directly toward the work of teaching.
7. Insure greater coöperation between normal and training departments in shaping and correlating courses of study.
8. Require coöperation between teachers of subjects within each department, so that in writing a course of study in English other branches as well as English will be drawn upon.
9. Draw more upon the faculty members in formulating courses of study.
10. Permit flexibility which will fit work to the needs and possibilities of individual students.

As suggested above, among the survey's first fruits the board of regents in February, 1914, authorized and directed the president to reorganize courses so as to provide specific preparation; i.e., for teaching in the primary, in kindergarten, in grammar grades, in agriculture, in commerce, etc.



Hotbeds by practice pupils

State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin



Brooder built by 7th and 8th grade boys

Platteville

Coöperation of agriculture and manual training

It also authorized a three-year course to train teachers for high schools, since the University and colleges of Wisconsin could not be counted upon to supply all the teachers needed in high schools.

In an address before the N. E. A., New York, 1916, President James W. Crabtree, State Normal School, River Falls, Wisconsin, said: "This piece of constructive work in Wisconsin has not only given satisfactory results, but it has opened the eyes of the normal schools to the need of further constructive work along this line. . . . Several normal schools in other states have tackled this same problem, each in its own way, with the general result that normal schools have taken on new life and have assumed a place of importance in preparing teachers for leadership in special education as well as in general education."

Among "high spots" noted were these evidences of co-operation within normal departments in making courses of study:

1. The geography teacher reported help from physics teacher with regard to problems arising in geography; from the biology teacher with respect to ocean life.
2. Terms used in physics, chemistry, and physiology were prepared for the use of Latin classes.
3. Two instructors of psychology held conferences and worked along lines planned.
4. The head of the English department before the entire faculty outlined a plan to secure better results in English throughout the whole school.
5. Flexibility was secured by permitting a class poor in grammar to take more grammar work, a class proficient in grammar to take less grammar and more literature and history.

33. *Subject Matter of Course*

There is many a slip 'twixt a course of study in the catalog and the course which reaches the student. There are

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not enough slips between certain catalog courses and students.

Impractical courses unrelated to the pupils' past or the teacher's future have a fatalistic tendency to survive the vicissitudes of classroom lecture or recitation, whereas paper courses properly related to one another and to the student's future work as teacher are apt to crumble into conventional unrelated impracticalities by the time they reach the student.

Typical of subject matter felt by instructors and surveyors not to be suited to the work before Wisconsin's teachers were these:

1. A very large proportion of the subject matter is beyond the comprehension of the students and wholly unsuited to the needs of students who spend only two years after graduation from high school in preparing for teaching.
2. Instead of general hygiene, anatomy and technical physiology are often taught; instead of practical arithmetic, algebraic problems or even geometric problems for which the student has not the preparation and for which she will not have a future use.
3. "Physics is practically all academic."
4. Normal school composition is supposed to be purely academic.
5. A large part of work in physiology and botany cultural and informational; in zoölogy mainly academic; in bacteriology largely cultural and informational.
6. "Too much of the music and drawing are for show only."
7. "We have 230 children enrolled in the training school. Practically no attention is given to physical training either on the playground or in the gymnasium. . . . We talk of plays and games, but we do nothing."
8. A class of ten members studying digestion was called on to describe chemical changes taking place at differ-

ent stages of digestion. Pupils gave technical information as given in textbooks.

Which of these conditions are duplicated in your school?

34. *Observation and Practice Work*

While it is true that normal graduates teach as they were taught rather than as they were taught to teach, it is also true that the teaching in normal schools is indexed by the coöperation between theory and practice, by the teaching and observing as part of their own instruction, and by the teaching they do and supervision they receive in practice.

Each of these factors must be surveyed separately and in its relation to other factors.

Again it is suggested that the "high spots" and "low spots" noted in Wisconsin's normal schools be checked point for point after *Yes... No... How often... ?...*

It should never be forgotten that in the same school, in the same department, and often in the same class will be found side by side "high spots" and "low spots," excellences needing expansion and deficiencies needing remedial attention.

Clear vision requires that each list be studied separately.

35. *Extent and Effect of Non-Professional Courses*

In eight normal schools \$40,000 was being spent annually for college courses — 279 classes, of which 84% enrolled students preparing to teach. Of students taking college courses 58% were taking them not for use in teaching but to earn credits toward a later college degree. Fifteen other facts were disclosed regarding college courses and other advanced work.

1. Normal-school presidents believe (and the University conceded) that graduation from the normal schools of the state should be considered presumptive evidence

of capacity and ability to take up and successfully carry on the work of the junior year in the college of letters and science in the University of Wisconsin or a college of equal rank; and that the successful completion of 60 hours of college work of the grade of advancement usually required of juniors and seniors should entitle the normal-school graduate to the bachelor's degree. *Yes... How often... No... ?...*

2. There is too much stress on making work in normal school parallel with university work, so that students may receive full credit in university for time spent in normal school. "It makes us cross-eyed to look in both directions at the same time," one president said in discussing the question. *Y... How often... N... ?...*
3. One normal-school president reported to the regents that it is impossible for the normal school to reach or even to approximate its highest efficiency so long as instructors look upon the teaching of college or "advanced" work as more honorable than the teaching of the fundamentals. *Y... How often... N... ?...*
4. It was generally true that the highest-paid instructors had been assigned to college courses, although these courses are not the primary aim of the normal school. *Y... How often... N... ?...*
5. To fill out college classes students in the normal department sometimes had to take college courses which had practically no bearing upon their future work of teaching. *Y... How often... N... ?...*
6. In some schools too many college classes were maintained in proportion to the number of students enrolled. During the second semester of 1913-14 one school enrolled six college-course students and each of two other schools seven. The numbers of college courses maintained in these schools were 22, 19,



Class in concrete

State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin



Students in clean-up week

Concord State Normal School, Athens, West Virginia



Student-built sidewalk

Concord State Normal School, Athens

Public service gives good training

and 20, respectively. *Y... How often... N... ?...*

7. 336 classes enrolled college-course students — 57 of these classes were not subjects carrying college credit — leaving 279 classes doing work of college grade. Of the 279 classes 46, or 16%, were composed entirely of students in the college course; 233, or 84%, contained students who were preparing to teach, as well as college-course students.
8. The cost of teaching college courses was \$35,000 a year.
9. One result of college courses was that the vocational element which is so essential in efficient training of teachers for the public school was either weakened or destroyed. *Y... N... ?...*
10. Students preparing to teach in the primary grades not infrequently had to select subjects like college mathematics, college classes, economics, because the college classes were small. *Y... N... ?...*
11. When asked why they were taking a college course, students in almost every case replied: "I have to have a credit"—or "I want to get through"—or "I had to take something." *Y... N... ?...*
12. Many courses designed to prepare students for teaching were transformed into courses for college. *Y... N... ?...*
13. Instructors in geography were found who wanted to give college courses in geography, and some were actually attempting to do this. *Y... N... ?...*
14. Praise for giving advanced work had blinded teachers to the needs of the students. *Y... N... ?...*
Inordinate ambition to do advanced work resulted in attempts at hair-splitting differentiations in grammar with students who were unable to select parts of speech; in giving intensive courses in history and geography to students many of whom could not write an intelligible sentence on the work of Jefferson or

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Franklin, and who were unable to tell in what zones the continents are located. Y... N... ?...

15. Except for teaching and school management, twice as much time, or more, was given to the study of the the foreign languages as to any other subject in the course. Y... N... ?...

36. *The High-School Preparatory Course*

Approximately \$128,000 was being spent yearly by the five normal schools in preparatory high-school work. This does not refer to high-school work in the training department but to the high-school department in the normal school. Total enrollment was 577, of which 372, or nearly two thirds, were from the very towns where the normal schools were located and where local high schools were supported. Yet the per capita annual cost to the state of this high-school course was over \$200, whereas the per capita cost for doing the same work in local high schools ranged from \$50 to \$75.

These facts led the regents to ask that the high-school courses be discontinued. Future registrations were to be refused, but children already enrolled would be carried through their courses.

In few instances will high-school courses strengthen normal schools. Whatever slight gain may seem to result from the large numbers reported will surely be more than offset by misrepresentations bound to result. Moreover, it is unfair to a state and its pupils to evade the problem of providing adequate near-at-home high school accommodations for all children.

It certainly is unfair to schools needing well-equipped teachers to permit or to require normal schools to deflect attention from teacher-training work to high-school preparatory work.

A parallel danger confronts colleges of education which maintain separate high schools. The temptation is to em-

phasize preparation of high-school pupils rather than preparation of future teachers of high schools.

Where observation and practice work are done in the public high schools under a different management, as in the case of three Wisconsin normals, the high-school management is responsible for protecting its high-school pupils, hence the normal school does not worry about that responsibility. On its part the normal-school management can concentrate its attention upon the benefits derived by its pupils in training from observation and practice work.

Any colleges of education and any private colleges whose certificates entitle holders to teach without further examination need to be surveyed for their courses of study for teachers.

1. Are students who plan to teach given exactly the same course of study as other students who do not plan to teach?
2. How, if at all, is the future application of a history course or geography course presented to students?
3. What, if any, observation or practice work is required before issuing a teacher's certificate?
4. Should state laws continue to abet the exploded theory that knowledge of a subject is tantamount to ability to teach that subject and to teach pupils?
5. Should any student be certificated in any subject until he has disclosed to himself and others whether or not he possesses ability to teach?

Regarding the effect of college courses upon the normal school's main service the survey reported:

The presence of the college course tends strongly to create an aristocracy both among members of the faculty teaching in these courses and among the students taking them. This is responsible for the assumption by some instructors and students that the teacher-training courses, the real work of the school, are of lesser dignity and minor importance.

That college-course subjects should not displace profes-

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sional courses needed to fit teachers for their future teaching was recommended. Three normal schools were later instructed to discontinue their college courses.

Pressure is beginning from foundation and from colleges and universities to abolish all college courses — i.e., non-professional courses — in normal schools. Future surveys may recommend such abolition, as did the Iowa survey commission for the State College for Teachers.

In every case surveys should secure the facts as to the nature, number, and method of conducting such courses, the enrollment, the cost, etc. Before conceding, however, what it is now conventional to assert, that efficiency cannot live in a normal school which is part normal and part college, five facts should be thoroughly considered:

1. **More centers for higher education are needed.** Limiting college courses to state universities and private colleges arbitrarily shuts the doors of higher education to large numbers who, as experience shows, will go 50 or even 100 miles to college but cannot or will not go farther.
2. **The training of teachers is a public function.** The preparation of teachers for high schools should not be left entirely to scattered private colleges and the central state university. Experience proves that high schools will seek teachers who have had college work — with normal-school work if possible, without normal-school work if necessary.
3. **Unity of training has advantages which cannot lightly be dismissed** — in a normal school as well as a high school. Arguments for a cosmopolitan high school apply equally to a cosmopolitan normal school.
4. **Gradually raising the standards of teaching for all lower schools is necessary.** It has not been proved that eliminating college courses — i.e., college students — from normal schools will do as much to raise the standard of instruction in the normal and other public

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schools, as will the retention of college courses and of students planning to take a four-year college course. Colleges of education do not consider the presence of non-professional students destructive of efficiency.

5. No dangers have ever yet been pointed out in the college courses as found in normal schools which are not attributable to administrative breakdown and which cannot be corrected by administrative steps. The president is there; the buildings are there; there are regents and a state department of instruction; there is no justification for giving up the advantages that would flow from college work available in several different parts of the state until after thorough effort has been made to separate abuse from use, and to correct abuse.

The argument for abolishing college courses for normal students was stated by the Iowa Survey Commission as follows:

"In dealing with the problems of duplication as manifested in the practice of the Iowa State institutions, the commission has been guided by what may be described as the principle of 'major and service' lines of work. . . . English is a major line at the State university, a service line at the State College."

The report also states that

1. The atmosphere of State Teachers' College is not unequivocally collegiate.
2. Methods of class instruction are dominantly those of the high school and junior college type. [Need they be?]

Of this argument Dr. A. E. Winship, editor of the *Journal of Education*, wrote on November 30, 1916: "This is merely a skillful restatement of every survey of higher institutions of learning by university men under the foundations. The only thing is the artistic expression: 'Major

and service activities. . . . Pedagogy is major at the Teachers College and English is only to be taught so far as it is necessary for the promotion of pedagogy. . . . Nowhere in higher education except in a university for culture is a gigantic effort made to train university students alone to write effective English."

How inconsistent is the appeal to abolish all but vocational courses from normal schools is clear when we consider the conditions in colleges of education whose professors are insisting that normal schools should be vocational. The so-called normal school is no more vocational than the so-called college of education.

For those students who plan to teach, any private college is giving vocational work when it prepares them for teaching. Not until colleges and schools of education refuse to combine vocation with not-so-directly vocational subjects and students is it fair to lay down the law to so-called normal schools and to restrict their ability to serve.

At this point self-surveying by normal schools must include surveying of similar practices by colleges of education and other colleges that prepare teachers.

37. *Student Programs*

The number of hours which students are permitted to take and the relation of heavy programs to work of merely passing grade are matters which should be checked in a self-survey. One normal-school survey discloses the fact that

several students were taking seven hours per day, many others were taking six hours, and a five-hour program was common; yet four hours was the expected limit. Some students took heavy programs because they wished to graduate earlier; others wanted extra subjects; mediocre students were carrying an extra subject so as to make up for failure in previous semester. To get credit was the chief aim of most of these students.

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In several cases scholastic zeal was ruining health and dwarfing social instinct.

The programs were, of course, seriously affecting the student's teaching in the training school. Several students whose teaching was poor were found to have heavy programs. When urged to make more careful preparation for teaching they usually complained of their lack of time. One young man who had especially lamented his lack of time to do what was wanted, was carrying seven hours three days in the week and six hours the other two days, besides being in a football squad.

Advisors had signed student programs without examination or had accepted insufficient reasons for additional work. In one or two institutions there was a suspicion that subjects had been inserted after the slips had been signed.

One normal-school catalog calls for a Junior year program of 27 periods of recitation per week. Assuming for each subject, except physical exercise, at least the same time in preparation as is given to recitation periods, this means a minimum working week of 53 hours. In the Senior year, second semester, this school calls for 29 periods of practical teaching and 3 other periods, besides the supervisor's conferences. The working time of a stenographer, except in a few small communities where a longer day is permitted, is 39 hours per week.

Distinction should be made by the survey between programs outlined in the catalog and programs actually worked out by students. The Massachusetts Agricultural College asks students to report for a typical week the distribution of their time among college duties. Typical budgets of student time showing specifically for each recitation period the time required for preparation, will be of material aid.

VII

SUPERVISION PROBLEMS

38. *Benefits of Supervision by Presidents*

LIKE other organizations, teacher-training schools take their cues from supervising heads. Where a president tries to accomplish results without supervision it will be found as a rule that heads of schools and departments and critic teachers have not been trying to discover the possibilities of supervision. Checking actual practice by your supervisors with the following actual practices will disclose important facts.

The benefits of supervision by normal-school presidents were referred to as follows by instructors:

1. His visits stimulate me in my work. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. His attitude of hearty coöperation has made the work run more smoothly, consequently better work has been done. *Y... N... ?...*
3. He has always been an inspiration to me. *Y... N... ?...*
4. The president makes many valuable suggestions to the faculty in faculty meetings that have a very direct bearing on the general work of the school. *Y... N... ?...*
5. The president's suggestions are always constructive — never destructive; if there is a criticism to be made he suggests where an individual can build up and improve himself. *Y... N... ?...*

Supervisors of training schools were reported as helping critic teachers as follows:

1. Science instructors organized different science subjects so that there may be harmonious correlation. *Yes... No... ?...*

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2. Frequently discusses work with department head. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Gave series of suggested lessons in dramatization and writing of plays. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Has frequent conferences with department head regarding course of study, reference books, welfare and standing of students, and general and specific duties of the department. *Y... N... ?...*

Supervision deficiencies — classroom work

1. Observations in 369 classes demonstrated a most pressing need for the definite supervision and direction of classroom instruction. *Yes... No...*
2. Supervision of instruction by head of department was reported by only 27 out of 133 instructors in normal departments. *Y... N... ?...*
3. In 22 years a supervisor had visited one teacher's classes not more than three times.
4. In two schools where two or more teachers taught English grammar of same grade, no attempt was made to harmonize the work; in one school three different textbooks were used, in the other, two. *Y... N... ?...*
5. In two schools with two instructors in psychology there was no attempt to confer as to what should be taught. *Y... N... ?...*
6. "I know that they are teaching geography. I get along best when I stick close to my own work (e.g., head of department). I am not consulted and I offer no advice." *Y... N... ?...*
7. In one school the head of the rural high-school department taught but two classes in this department; in addition taught two college classes, helped coach the football team, the debating team, and the orators for the oratorical contest,—but had no supervision of classes where students in his department were enrolled. *Y... N... ?...*



Studying landscape gardening

Normal Training School, Cleveland, Ohio



Material for teaching Cleveland's history

Normal Training School, Cleveland

Two adoptable practices

8. "Head of department has too many classes to visit mine." *Y... N... ?...*
9. "Each woman is a law unto herself — there is considerable overlapping (in English); even some contradicting of one course by another." *Y... N... ?...*
10. "The head can do nothing on his own initiative and therefore we feel greatly hampered." *Y... N... ?...*

Supplies complaints

1. Lack of proper maps, *Yes... No... ?...*, sand table, *Y... N... ?...*, and sufficient reference books, *Y... N... ?...* in teaching geography.
2. It takes perhaps a year after book is recommended before it is placed in the library. *Y... N... ?...*

Housekeeping complaints

1. Temperature record shows frequent high temperature and sometimes a very low temperature. All schools needed some means through which sufficient humidity to the air might be provided.
2. Some schools and yards were notably uncared for, floors dirty, windows unwashed, and yard badly littered with rubbish.
3. One third to one half of classrooms were found untidy, blackboards smeared, loose papers strewn about the teacher's desk, etc.
4. "Difficult to teach cleanliness when it is not carried out about us."
5. In 15 rooms where window space was insufficient, shades were drawn so as further to shut out a great deal of light.

Presidential inattention to teaching

1. Presidents were criticized for not knowing the character of work done. *Yes... No... ?...*

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2. "Our school would be a better school from the standpoint of (1) classroom work, (2) school tone, (3) product, if our president would, or could, think **less about the number of students and more about quality.**"
Y... N... ?...
3. Of 28 teachers in training-school departments, 17 report no professional assistance from presidents.
4. In 15 years a president has never visited my classes.
5. Presidents spent little time in observing teaching by faculty members; during the period covering approximately 15 months of school work one president spent on an average of two hours a month in observing classroom work, or a total of 13 visits averaging less than 10 minutes each.
6. In visiting the so-called professional subjects during 15 months each president averaged 21 minutes a month. Y... N... ?...
7. Are you joking? Are presidents really supposed to know what is being taught? You amaze me.
8. He has never during four and a half years come to me or called me into the office for a discussion of my work or the work of planning it. He has perfect confidence in my ability to plan and manage the department. Y... N... ?...
9. I have taught in this school under three presidents and it has not been the policy of any one of them to supervise the work in class. Y... N... ?...
10. His attitude has caused me to be less exacting and more lenient in promoting students, since a good deal of charity seemed to be expected in promoting students. Y... N... ?...
11. Our president, I am glad to say, has too much good sense to attempt such a thing; he has confidence in his teachers and we all work hard to deserve that confidence. Y... N... ?...
12. He has neither made criticism nor given suggestion
Y... N... ?...

A former Wisconsin normal faculty member has written us the following: "The lack of supervision on the part of presidents extends down the line. Departments are loosely organized if they are organized at all. Every man teaches for himself and resents interference. Besides, those who are nominally at the head of departments have a full or overfull quota of teaching hours and do not have time to observe the work of other teachers in the department. Heads of department prefer to be inefficient rather than run the risk of criticism in case of difference with a member of the department. Any such difference often brings from presidents the criticism that the head of the department does not get along with people."

Fifty-two of 178 instructors in the normal departments declared that the presidents were not competent to supervise their work, that they themselves were "specialists" and that "no one man could possibly know the work of all the departments in any school." The survey found that — naturally? — the work of these instructors was so "specialized" as to be far above the heads of their students and in urgent need of criticism and suggestion by some non-specialist. A self-survey, with free discussion, might bring to light sentiments like these about presidents' influence upon classroom instruction and help presidents to analyze their opportunities.

Deficiencies of supervision mentioned by faculty members outnumber, if they do not outweigh, the excellences mentioned. It is suggested that both lists be checked by instructors and managers alike for each teacher-training school studied.

At the time normal-school instructors were asking for more adequate supervision, instructors in the college of education at the University of Wisconsin were conscious of inadequate supervision. For example, neither the model training school nor the 17 separate courses for the training of teachers were receiving any supervision over the course content or the method of instruction.

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The science and art of supervision have of late received much attention from educators. Normal schools are giving courses and writing textbooks on supervision of elementary schools. Colleges of education know exactly how secondary schools should be supervised. It is not necessary here to repeat the details of such instruction.

Self-surveyors of teacher-training work need only ask point for point whether and in what degree with respect to each step in such teacher-training work the minimum essentials of proper supervision as recommended for secondary and elementary schools exist. Always it should be remembered that the purpose of supervision is not to appraise, evaluate, adjudge, average, but to improve results, i.e., to help persons supervised locate the strong and weak points of their work; build upon and expand the strong points; correct and eliminate the weak points.

The supervision which teachers in training will remember is the supervision that they have actually seen and felt at work rather than the supervision they have read about or listened about.

39. *Training-on-the-Job*

With few exceptions practice teaching in another teacher's school lacks one element which is necessary to try out teacher and teaching; namely, a sense of personal responsibility for the welfare of individual pupil and class.

Something happens when we find ourselves over our depth, compelled to sink or swim, which we can never experience when we have either water wings or life savers within immediate reach.

To guarantee follow-up, "after-care," supervision-that-trains for teachers on the job, special steps are being taken by a number of training schools, including the Universities of Cincinnati and Toledo, Iowa State Teachers' College, Cleveland Normal School, Connecticut's State Board of Education, etc.

Connecticut trains teachers in three normal schools. There they have practice teaching in training schools and in city and rural schools attached to the normal school and supervised by their principals. At this point the State Department of Education takes up the training of 1000 teachers going into the rural schools of about 100 towns. The following are principles in training of teachers-on-the-job:

1. Attendance at a summer institute is compulsory for all new teachers. At this institute they are given demonstrations and in addition have daily conferences, each state supervisor with the group of teachers for whom he is responsible.
2. A school organization meeting is held of each group, at which the supervisor takes up in detail problems of school management, particularly those which will arise during the first week.
3. Every teacher is visited at least twice by her supervisor during her first two weeks and help given her in the mechanics and spirit of school management, filling out of daily plan book stating for each period of each day the subject, the aim, and special point to be driven home.
4. Special institutes are held during the first two weeks, on Saturdays, at which questions are answered and demonstrations made.
5. A model school is established in many towns, to which teachers needing special help in teaching different subjects are not only permitted but required to go. This teacher in the model school is chosen for ability to teach and to show others how to teach.
6. Monthly meetings are held by each supervisor with his group of teachers. At each of these there must be one or more demonstration lessons. Sometimes the demonstrator is chosen by lot in advance; oftentimes the demonstrator is chosen by lot five minutes before she must take charge of a strange class. Questions,

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answers, criticisms, and suggestions are mobilized by the supervisor.

7. Public meetings are held, frequently attended by the secretary of the state board or a central office inspector, at which again demonstration lessons are given with or without advance notice.
8. Regarding each school the responsible supervisor must report to the central office, not only general facts, but specific facts as to each teacher's progress.
9. Recent tabulation shows that the average time spent in classrooms daily by these rural supervisors responsible for schools miles away from one another, is no less than $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours,—probably 4 hours more than the average for supervisors of city schools all in one building.
10. Central office comparisons and special studies are made of individual schools, papers read, age and grade secured and tabulated, and all interpreted in terms of questions about teachers' need for training.
11. Inspectors from the central office visit schools; sometimes supervisors are detailed to act as inspectors of other supervisors' schools.

The character of supervision given to teachers-on-the-job is indicated by the following excerpts from letters written by different central office inspectors to Connecticut supervisors:

1. Miss S. seems to be rather hit or miss in regard to order. The pupils appear to be on the alert to catch all the fun that is going. The pupils do not talk very well and appear to be afraid that she is going to watch for anything wrong to make fun of it. She appears to be working hard and trying to do well but playing to the grandstand too much. Is that the case or am I wrong?
2. Miss M. needs careful attention. She had a poor school. It is not worth while to go into detail about



Rural practice school makes jelly

State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire



A practical painting lesson

Rural practice school, Keene



Practice-pupil-made apparatus

State Normal School, Keene

Rural practice schools are important laboratories

her, but she ought to teach or be let go. What work I observed did not warrant the time of the pupils being spent in the school. Can you help her?

3. I noted some things I wish to commend:
 - a. The energy and enthusiasm of all teachers — fine work in this way.
 - b. Generally good methods, and excellent interest on the part of pupils.
 - c. Good order in all schools visited.
 - d. Outhouses in good shape — interiors given attention this year and improvements made which are desirable and reasonable.
 - e. Work of teachers well planned in general and bookkeeping of teachers good.
 - f. Apparently good spirit on the part of teachers and correct attitude toward their work and yourself.
4. As you know, I visited four schools in S. during December. Please consider the following suggestions:
 - a. Take up the plan book on each visit to a school for the present and check it with respect to plan for the day, type of lesson and aim, and write suggestions for the teacher's consideration.
 - b. Have a suggestion book in each school and use it each time you visit. This will enable you to show what you have suggested and to check the teacher's accomplishment of what you suggest.
 - c. See that in each program the seat work is definitely assigned the proper subject, and check the proportion of time given to each subject. The order of recitations ought to be right.
 - d. Detailed plans — by now all subjects ought to be included in these in each school. These help to show you what a teacher means by a type indicated in the work sheet as well as whether the method of procedure is correct. Note what was

said the other day about the analogy between a recipe for cooking and the detailed plan.

- e. There should be a demonstration lesson at each teachers' meeting. This was the only point at which I thought the meeting was not so profitable as it might have been, for your talk was good and you covered the outline for the meeting acceptably.
- f. The committee have done much with respect to repairs, but they ought to complete the work planned. Can you hurry up matters any? I liked the stove jacket in the Southford school very much.

For Memoranda by Reader

VIII

CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION — ACADEMIC DEPARTMENT

40. *Earmarks of Efficiency and Progress*

BECAUSE the purpose of teacher-training schools is to give instruction, no self-survey will accomplish much which does not survey instruction.

Model organization and procedure may exist on paper and still the instruction miss its mark. On the other hand, organization and procedure may on paper be woefully deficient and still the instruction be admirable.

The proof of the pudding is in the eating, and the two teacher-training puddings of first consequence are the quality of instruction at normal schools and the quality of instruction given by normal-school products.

The Iowa State Teachers' College was surveyed in two days, the greater part of which was spent at a hotel rather than in teacher-training classrooms. The Wisconsin survey observed 369 recitations in eight different schools, and the surveyor spent from three weeks to four weeks at each of the eight schools.

The results of observations are presented here in separate lists of inefficiencies and efficiencies; earmarks of progress are separated from earmarks of conditions that need attention. It is suggested that surveyors read them one at a time and check (✓) on a numbered list after *Yes... No... Where... How often...*, if it is or is not to be found in his training work, and after *?*... if the surveyor must investigate to learn the answer.

How often or how generally any one of these "high spots" was found in Wisconsin's normal schools is of no special interest to you. Each "high spot's" helpfulness to you, like each "low spot's" helpfulness, depends upon the local use you can make of it tomorrow.

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The authors hope that the readers will care to send to them lists of local "high spots" not here enumerated. Such additions will be sent to collaborators.

Agriculture: efficiency earmarks

1. "We aim to make the needs of the community our opportunity for work."
2. 44-acre farm owned — a successful practical farmer works farm under direction of school — is to stock farm and raise chickens — any profit he can get from the farm belongs to him — chief purpose is to demonstrate what a man can do with a 44-acre farm and to furnish practice farm work for students.
3. Study of farm machinery occupies important place — regular textbook study is supplemented by work in implement shops in community — students required to uncrate and assemble parts and put machines in good working order.
Special attention paid to gasoline engine because of its possibilities in farm work.
4. Year's work in manual training required of all students in agriculture — students make hayracks — farmers furnishing materials, likewise wagon boxes, sheepracks, gates, tables, chairs, swings, etc.
5. Recitation in propagation — students gathered around table on which were placed several growing plants — geranium, begonia, etc.— by questions instructor not only brought out every bit of experience the pupils had had in growing and caring for plants, but succeeded in getting from them the information they had gained from their observation of trees and plants — instructor called on boy actually to make a cutting from the geranium plant. This brought up a question of treatment to follow. A spirited discussion resulted — just before recitation closed boy in knee trousers called on: "What should the class get out of this recitation?" A splendid summary was given



State Normal School, Mayville, N. D.



State Normal School, Keene, N.H.



State Normal School, Keene

Training teachers to teach agriculture via doing agriculture

—practically every essential point raised during the entire recitation was recalled.

6. Farmers have welcomed students' help in building silos, setting out fruit trees, spraying them, in vaccinating their hogs for cholera, in having drainage surveys made of low spots on their farms, in making scale drawings of their farms showing possible changes in boundaries to save time and labor.
7. Drawings are made of homesteads, showing possible decorations in shrub or tree planting, or the same for their country school grounds.
8. Students study seed grains, seed germination, stock judging, farm management, milk testing, etc. This work in coöperation with farmers in the community is done on the farm under such conditions as the farmer must meet in doing his work.
9. Requests frequently made by farmers for help of students on Saturdays in selecting seed corn — students paid good wages.
10. Students are systematically placed on farms for summer work — through school service bureau.
11. Of what service is this in actual farming? Will it help the farmer to farm more intelligently and enable him to be more efficient? These questions are repeatedly applied to different portions of subject matter than are ordinarily given. If their service value can be shown, they are taught; otherwise they are eliminated.
12. Extension work carried on in 14 rural schools within ten miles of normal school, in coöperation with county superintendent. Purpose: To help the rural school teacher relate her work to the interests and needs of the community the school serves.
Normal-school students and instructors actually show how raw materials from the farm may be used for teaching purposes. Classes are taught for the teacher; plans are made for the work; children are

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encouraged to do field work in connection with their school work, and later the products raised by them are exhibited and judged.

Exhibits are held at night. Parents come because interested in work of their own and neighbors' children.

Articles winning local prizes are taken to normal school, where prize winners from all schools again compete in connection with farmers' institute in January.

Work is made possible through use of an auto-bus carrying 20 people, now owned by school but rented during preceding year. Same bus used in taking students in the country-school course to the rural schools for their practice teaching.

13. In so far as students can render real service to the community and at the same time do their school work, actual field work on the farm takes the place or supplements usual laboratory work.

For example, a study of corn is a part of the course. In one laboratory students are required to make a critical study of corn types, and from selected samples work out the correct characteristics of different varieties of corn.

This school holds that it is one thing to know the good points of a good ear of seed corn and a vastly different thing to select that ear out of a field of standing corn. Therefore students are sent into the corn-fields to select seed corn.

Farmers are interested and coöperate. Class is taken to farm and there spends two hours in selecting seed from rows allotted to each.

Farmer works with them and together they discuss corn types, ear size, row planting, acre yield, and other related topics. Following this the corn is taken to the farmhouse and put on drying racks.

At least three such trips are taken to different farms where different corn types are raised.

14. Active part taken in farmers' institutes. School is headquarters for Cow Testing Association and Crop and Stock Improvement Association. Stock show held on school grounds. School is active in stimulating and teaching farmers to test the milk of their herds and to keep proper records of such tests. In cases where farms are not equipped with proper apparatus they may use school's equipment.

Arithmetic: efficiency earmarks

1. Practical work by freshmen, computing lumber in bleachers, income from milk of certain cows according to milk tests, etc.
2. Class of 16 juniors multiplying aliquot parts of 100 — the speed with which this recitation was conducted is rarely equaled, and yet it was direct and simple.
3. Courtis tests in addition, subtraction, multiplication, simple numbers, and decimals given to both normal and training departments.
4. Normal instruction bears directly on the work of the pupils teaching in the training school.
5. Recitation class of juniors assigned problem work in denominate numbers — one student told to come especially prepared to show the class how to teach liquid measure.

Stepping into the cloakroom she brought before the class a metal tub, and gallon, quart, pint, and gill measures. The janitor had placed a bowl of water at her disposal. This she placed in the tub.

One student was called on to be the pupil to be taught. Student teacher proceeded to find out whether the pupil knew the various measures by asking him to select quart, pint, etc. The pupil suggested the gill measure for the pint. The teacher corrected him and proceeded to make sure that he could select the various measures without hesitation. Pupil then required to

fill a gill measure and see how many of these it took to fill a pint, etc. In this way the table was built up and written on the blackboard.

When student had finished the instructor asked the grades where quart, gallon, etc., would be likely to be used first. Students answered, "About the second grade." "Would you teach the gill in that grade?" Student stated that the quart and pint would be sufficient but that she saw no reason why children in the primary grade might not easily learn the gallon and gill.

As to method, it was shown that in all cases it was necessary to work with measures and materials to make children understand.

This was followed by a few moments of problems suitable for the primary grades. The following are typical:

Milk is three cents a pint. What would two pints cost?

Milk is eight cents a quart. What is the cost per pint?

How many pints in 16 quarts?

How many gallons in 16 quarts?

Pupils had difficulty in giving the analysis in clear-cut, precise English. Instructor persisted until pupil called on gave a satisfactory statement.

6. Recitation — class of 19 juniors was assigned a review lesson on topics like these written on the blackboard:

Comparison of simple whole number with compound denominate number.

Liquid measure.

Dry measure.

Addition of compound denominate numbers.

Measurement of compound denominate numbers.

Students reported as to why a subject should be taught and method of teaching.



Marketing



Also profitable



Prize winners

Cleveland trains city teachers to teach gardening

Civics: efficiency earmarks

1. In 8 out of 27 classes students were required to study and observe the operation of government in city, town, and state — method of recitation capitalized in a very large degree the experience of students, or else required them to obtain experience which would give meaning and significance to the topics studied.
2. Classes get their information regarding city, town, and county government by personal interviews and investigations.
3. One class followed spring elections — every step was analyzed and original papers examined — actual election proceedings were witnessed, including counting of the ballots, subsequent certification, etc.
4. Federal courts in session studied. Eighth-grade class closely followed spring elections. Members of class organized themselves into a community. All took the steps in the election as required by law. Used city forms — because of interest developed through this work pupils have been following the work of the city council and the mayor. Some of the pupils attend the meetings of the council and report to the class.
5. The city departments in the city where the school is located are studied.
6. A local recreation and health survey made.
7. Current events topics include food inspection, control of milk supply, street construction, child welfare, fire protection, collection of garbage, health protection, public library.
8. Effort to teach civics so that student will learn what and how to teach civics.
9. Social service organized to prepare young men and women for intelligent service in public playgrounds, social centers, etc.

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Domestic science: Lunchroom uses school garden supplies.

Drawing: Work in drawing is related to interests and environment of children and illustrates work of various subjects to be taught later.

English via doing: efficiency earmarks

1. Work in oral language in all schools ranks high.
2. Grammar is taught primarily as an aid to correct speech.
3. Letter-writing forms emphasized.
4. In a grammar class analyzing sentences, students did most of the questioning to clear up doubtful points — very little time used by teacher — recitation showed that students understood what they were doing.
5. Compositions are frequently based on the work of farmers and farm problems — several students are reporters for local newspapers, thus putting into practice things studied in class.
6. A series of cautions or “don’ts” in the use of pronouns and adverbs and the agreement of the verb with its subject is compiled by students.
7. 23 students enrolled in the country-school course select and read an article particularly interesting and give the gist of it to the class — three to five minutes’ reports were made, the students standing in front of the class — no notes were used.
8. Class one day each week organized into a literary society — program consists of reports on current events, essays, debates, drill in parliamentary practice and extempore speaking. Debate: *Resolved*, That the city authorities of (this city) should provide sheds where farmers who drive to town may safely hitch their teams.

Three students assigned to discuss each side — four others volunteered — discussion spirited and arguments on both sides well presented — the rebuttals

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particularly effective. Good points emphasized and several pupils commended because of improvement shown in their work.

9. Important news events of the world discussed orally or in writing — students to be prepared either to write on some topic chosen from a list selected by the instructor or to report on it orally.
Orally: Panama Canal, earthquake in Japan, conditions in Mexico, Montessori's visit to America, Trust Message to Congress, doings of Congress; reports then written — additions made by the class show that the students are doing a great deal of reading and keeping themselves informed on current history.
10. Novels reviewed orally and compared with other novels, several students participating — instructor most considerate of the opinions expressed by students, encouraging them always to give their own views even though they were not in accord with his own.
11. Training given in telling stories to children. Fifth-grade group brought to room where class met. Student told story in an admirable manner. After story had been told children were questioned as to the facts in the story. Responses showed that they had missed none of it.
After children were dismissed instructor took charge of the class — exercise just given was discussed and criticized. Suggestions were made as to how the telling of the story might be improved. Following this students were called on to tell other stories suitable for fifth and sixth grades. In afternoon children are tested upon ability to reproduce orally the story they had been told in the morning. A student teacher was in charge of the class.
12. Practical work in selecting books — e.g., assignment given: "What books would you select if given \$25 for seventh and eighth grade history?"



Painting real scenery

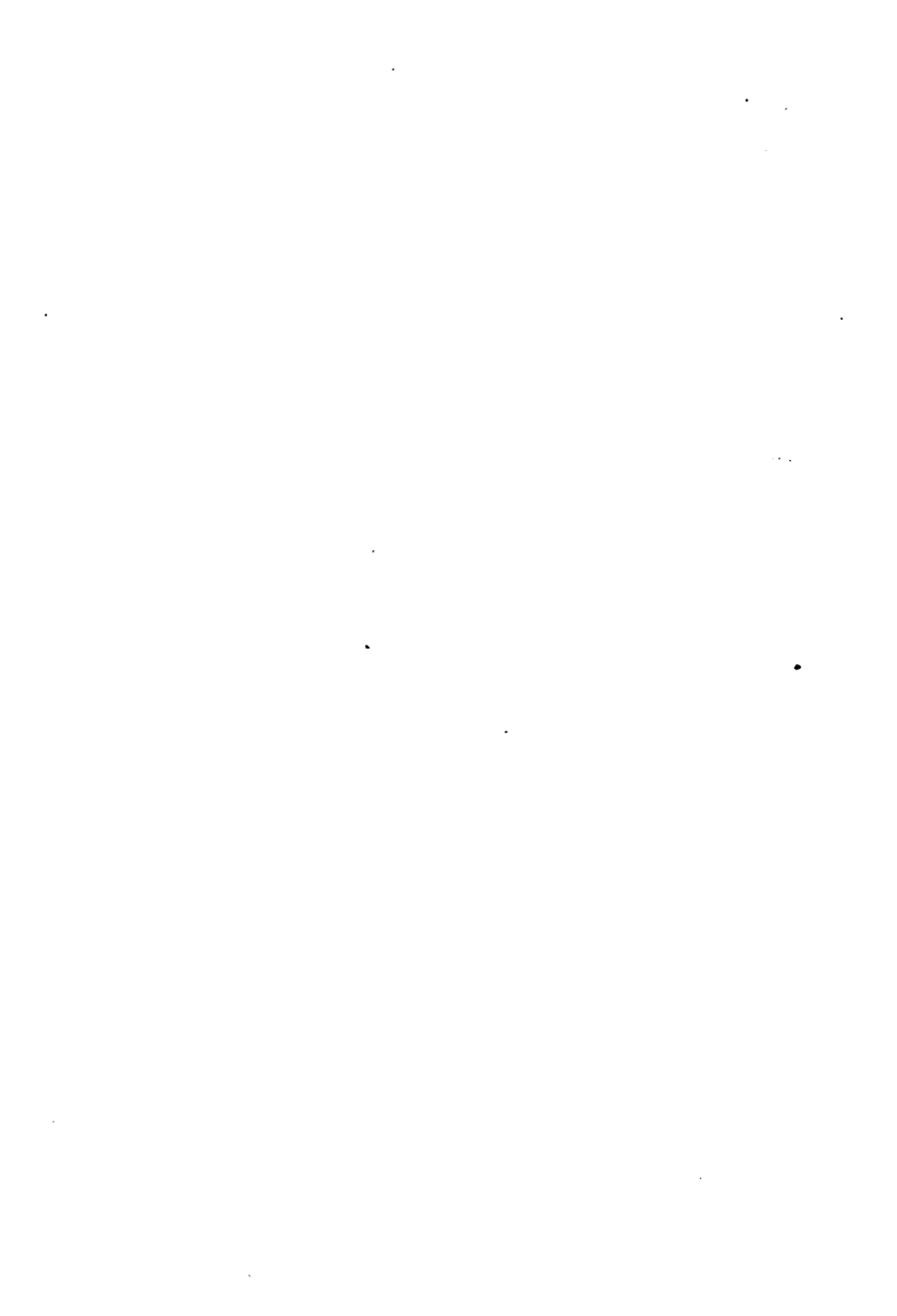
State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire



Seniors painting wings of stage

Keene

Drawing especially needs "motive"



13. Story books reviewed — tell how the books could be used and in what grades.
14. Assignment: Be prepared to report sources of information available in the school library on three of the following topics: Denmark, Argentina, Magna Charta, Tariff, Congo, Weather Bureau, etc.
First student reported on Denmark. He spoke to class, referring occasionally to memoranda on small slips of paper. He listed references such as atlases, statistical almanacs, commercial geographies, encyclopedias, etc. In each case he described the kinds of information to be found in each. When he was through instructor called on students to suggest other references. The following were mentioned: *Poole's Index*, *The World and Its People*, *The Earth and Its Inhabitants*, *Stoddard's Lectures*, *Carpenter's Geographical Readers*. Recitations by students were excellent exercises in English. Reports showed careful preparation. Facts were presented clearly and concisely in well-chosen language. In addition students were getting a most valuable training in the use of libraries, in selecting materials best adapted to their needs.

History: efficiency earmarks

1. Of 27 recitations visited 19 were doing work of high order.
2. Assignments by topics were the general practice.
3. Federal and state courts were visited.
4. Recitation — 30 juniors reviewing territorial expansion and the growth of the slavery issue presented topics:
 - Causes for the popularity of Pierce.
 - Character of Clay.
 - Compromise of 1850.
 - Fugitive slave law.
 - Webster and Clay as statesmen.

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From three to five minutes taken by each student in discussing his topic. Each report followed by questions by students and instructor.

Occasionally a student was asked to cite sources, and on two occasions the class was referred to the Constitution of the United States.

5. Recitation — 18 juniors reciting on agriculture as a business. Student called on contrasted farming of today as he knew it with the farming of earlier times as described in his reading. As far as possible he accounted for the differences. This student was reared in a section of Wisconsin where dairying and diversified farming were the rule.

Another student supplemented this report by telling about one-crop farming in the wheat sections. The reasons for the change to mixed farming were clearly brought out.

Another student discussed relative importance of agriculture and manufacturing. Interdependence of two clearly brought out.

Changes in the size of farms and reasons for the changes, advantages of intensive farming on smaller farms intelligently discussed.

Question of ownership of farms and the effect of farming by tenants another topic discussed.

Throughout the period questions were raised by students and personal experiences cited.

Hygiene: efficiency earmarks

1. Hygiene and sanitation taught from standpoint of what the teacher will find when she goes out to take a position.
2. Actual surveys of normal-school ventilation and town sanitation, drawing to scale, etc.— humidity and bacteriological tests of school air.
3. Public hygiene is given a large place in the study of physiology.

4. In gymnastics course the vocational side is emphasized, much being made of play and games, the management of playgrounds, emergencies, and personal hygiene.
5. Department head asks more interest in physical training of girls and children, saying that visitors are not sufficiently interested to enter the room, to say nothing of making suggestions.
6. Children in training schools are tested for physical defects by seniors in physiology, hygiene, and sanitation, who discuss the defective pupils found with head of training school and critic teachers.
7. Actual tests of foods are made in connection with study of digestion and proper feeding.
8. Computations are made to determine difference between amount of air needed by 35 students in a room and actual amount brought in — a diagram of the building is made to show how air was taken from the outside, how it was heated, how its humidity was regulated, location of shafts through which it passed on to the individual rooms.

Music: efficiency earmarks

Music is taught with special reference to what and how to teach music in grades.

Professional subjects: efficiency earmarks

1. Student teachers in history and geography use concrete materials, maps, charts, etc., because of work in normal department.
2. Classes in psychology and education taught by assistant principal of training school — thus making a natural connection between this work and the future teaching of the students in the training school.
3. Class in psychology discuss "Fatigue" on a basis of personal experiences and classroom application — during entire recitation class most attentive, inter-

ested, and active — later laboratory experiments were conducted and fatigue curve drawn.

4. Psychology class makes field study of "leisure time occupation of children you know" — reports showed a most active interest — the tabulation of these reports made a basis for a further study that includes what the city public schools, the normal school, and the students as individuals might do to better the conditions found.
5. Class studying "instincts" or "marked tendencies" of children. Assignment called for observation and study of children for the purpose of finding out what children naturally do; what they delight to do; what their strongest interests are. On a basis of this assignment the marked tendencies of children were worked out by the class. Following this the utilization of these tendencies in school was discussed.
6. Observation precedes teaching by student. *Y... N... ?...*
7. Recitation: School-management class considering subject of good order in school. Point developed: good order is desirable not for its own sake but to make possible the accomplishment of desired school results.

Students called on to give conceptions of good order and personal experiences. Instructor kept hands off and permitted the freest expression of opinion. Occasionally he would ask: "What leads you to believe this?"

Method of considering topic: Why is it wrong for a boy to whistle in school? Is whistling in itself wrong? Ans. No, but it cannot be permitted simply because it interferes with the work of the school. Students were asked to think of the teachers they had had. What were the elements that made them strong or weak in their handling of pupils? Some of the points reported under this head were as follows:

Influence of the noisy teacher.

Influence of teacher's voice.

Results of the teacher's doing most of the talking and using up most of the time.

The nagging teacher.

The untidy teacher.

The teacher who threatens and fails to carry out her threat.

Some students told of difficulties they had encountered in their teaching and pointed out the causes.

Assignment for the following recitation: List seven school virtues and point out how these may be developed in pupils in doing school work. Work out what you consider natural incentives, artificial incentives, and the proper and improper use of these in school management.

8. In class in school management, one student gave a special report. She stepped in front of the class and with watch in hand spoke for ten minutes. She was well prepared, her report was clear and definite, and illustrations from her own experience and observation led her to question the author's conclusions. At close of report she answered questions asked by remainder of the class.

Science: efficiency earmarks

1. Material sought that will "relate physics to the world about us."
2. In physics effort to make courses vocationally practical — heat, fuels, light, gas, electric motors, etc.

Recitation weaknesses needing attention

1. In many cases teachers did most of the reciting.
2. Teacher asked question after question, literally pumping the information from the student, a method of recitation responsible for much lack of preparation on part of students.

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3. Of 11 instructors in geography visited 7 used the question method, which resulted in fragmentary, disjointed, inadequate replies. Inability of students to answer questions showed their lack of preparation.
4. One pupil in a class in psychology did at least two thirds of the reciting.
5. Instructor used up 30 minutes in prosy lecturing on letter-writing. Students lacked interest and initiative.
6. In a class of 50 students the teacher questioned student as to how a chemical battery should be made. No one called on was able to answer questions. Little by little the instructor gave information he was trying to get from students. The recitation finally became a lecture by instructor, during which most of the students were inattentive; some were engaged in whispered conversations; one was writing a letter and others used the time in studying.
7. "Anxiety to cover ground is against doing thorough work."
8. In all classes observed articulation and enunciation were faulty; it was difficult to understand many of the students, while in some cases it was impossible to hear what was spoken or read.
9. 20 minutes was used by instructor in making an assignment — really a lecture in which the instructor recited what he wished the students to be able to reproduce on the following day. Students listened without taking any notes and without any apparent interest. This class was visited the following day. The 20-minute assignment of the previous day was hardly referred to. No appreciable gains were made.

Arithmetic: conditions needing attention

1. Judged by 24 classes seen, not including classes in method, teaching of arithmetic was not effective.

This was primarily because teachers failed to make sure that their students were thoroughly grounded in the so-called fundamentals. The programs of some arithmetic teachers were too ambitious — not only covering simple arithmetic but attempting to teach the science of numbers, and some even taking time to lecture on subjects like the fourth dimension.

Work of this kind is out of place with students who cannot perform simple computations and who fail in the solution of simple problems.

2. 17 juniors in the class. Recitation opened with a two-minute lecture on insurance. Everything about insurance was told, but no insurance problem was given. Visitor suggested problems to be given to class: House insured for \$4,000. Rate is \$6 per thousand for three years. What is cost of insurance per year? Only four students gave the correct answer. Following this, at suggestion of visitor, instructor gave students a brief drill to test students' knowledge of simple percentage. 12 out of 17 wrote the wrong result in answer to the question: "1 is what per cent of 2?" — 14 out of 17 failed on: "2 is what per cent of 3?"
3. Instructor and students were struggling with a rule for finding the greatest common divisor of two or more numbers. Class did not understand teacher's explanation. Demonstration which teacher was giving is the one usually given in algebra, but task seemed hopeless. At close of recitation instructor was requested to ask class the greatest common divisor of 12, 8, 16 — out of 36 in the class only 7 gave the correct answer.
4. Fractions were being discussed by 30 juniors. Instructor lectured 10 minutes upon the necessity of getting a thorough mastery of fractions. The first question raised was as to the meaning of the fraction $\frac{3}{4}$ ft. Considerable time was spent on this,

but matter was left hazy in the minds of several students. For example, instructor asked: "What law of multiplication is involved in this?" One student: "Things equal to the same thing are equal to each other"; another student: "Multiplying equals by equals gives equals."

Instructor failing to get the statement of principle he had in mind, himself stated that he referred to the "commutative law of factors."

This was followed by an explanation of what he meant. Thence he went on to explain the associative and distributive laws of factors — in each case using literal factors for purposes of illustration.

Just as the bell rang instructor asked: "What is the difference between multiplier and multiplicand?"

Class was dismissed without assignment. Attitude of students bad. Much whispering, giggling, and inattention.

Civics: conditions needing attention

1. In 19 classes visited civics meant a study and reproduction of a text or reference book; work formal, academic, unapplied, and unrelated to problems of government which the students might have studied first hand.
2. In two schools recitations were heard on "law making"; nothing was done to bring out what actually takes place in the making of laws by a state legislature.
3. Class unable to mention names of any cabinet officer except a secretary of state; instructor completed list. A 15-minutes talk by instructor on the duties of cabinet officers was followed by a series of questions on the departments of government. Students were unprepared and unable to give the information called for. Instructor finally wrote the following on the board:



Baiting flytraps about Central Market Normal Training School, Cleveland, Ohio



Clean-up squad State Normal School, Plymouth, New Hampshire

Teaching civics via civics work

Executive, Legislative, Judicial

Students were unable to state what was meant by the terms. Without finishing this subject instructor took up subject of city government. After commenting on city government as usually organized and conducted he gave a talk on the commission form of government.

For the following day students were asked to write their opinions of the commission form of government and to be prepared to discuss the initiative, referendum, recall, and public utilities.

English and grammar: conditions needing attention

1. Many teachers taught grammar for its disciplinary value. A few held that grammar should be taught as a cultural subject and that a knowledge of Old English was essential as a prerequisite. In such cases, when a construction came up for consideration time was taken to give the history of the development of the form from earliest times.
2. One teacher of grammar gave as one reason for poor work the fact that three different people were teaching grammar and no two agreed as to how to teach certain topics and each had a different terminology.
3. Another reason for difficulty in grammar was that the terminology differed from that used in high schools.
4. Classes were observed in which teachers of composition devoted most of the recitation to talking about composition, calling for rules and definitions — formal, theoretical, and unrelated to the composition work of the students. For example, one instructor called on a student to give the rule governing the punctuation of restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Student gave the rule, but when asked to apply it he was unable to do so because he did not know what a restrictive clause is. Other students were called on with the same result.

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Geography: conditions needing attention

Some teachers had fad subjects. In one school, as stated at a meeting of regents, climate was given constant attention; in another school the same was true of the economic geography of France, while in another 15 or 20 weeks had been spent studying one harbor.

Hygiene and physiology: conditions needing attention

1. A group of students composed of high-school graduates — first, second, and third year students from the five year course — was reciting on foods. The discussion could not possibly be understood without a knowledge of chemistry, which the students did not possess.
2. Examination of notebooks of one class showed that work was exceedingly technical and placed great emphasis on anatomy and histology — some students examining portions of the brain; four examining a cross section of bones; four were making copies of drawings from textbooks into notebooks.
3. Personal hygiene and public sanitation seemed to have no place. When instructor was asked what he did when teaching hygiene and schoolroom sanitation he said: "We have no time for this work. The time allowed is too short. I usually give a lecture or two on it."

When asked specifically whether any time was given to heat, lighting, and ventilation, the testing of children's eyesight, and whether any attention was given to a discussion of problems relating to personal hygiene, he replied that such work was done incidentally.

Reading: conditions needing attention

A class in the rural-school course was attempting to interpret *Julius Caesar*. It was a struggle merely to pronounce the words. To get the thought seemed quite hopeless.

Professional subjects: conditions needing attention

1. Of 67 teachers and principals in training department 40 replied that psychology did not help students in their teaching or that the help was slight.
2. "Normal department spends much time in study of how to teach a lesson, but how to teach a child is neglected."
3. "They (the student teachers) are well coached in the psychology of the child as he appears in the psychology books."
4. "There is no evidence that psychology and pedagogy as taught in normal department function in kindergarten."
5. "Student teachers when they come to us are unfamiliar with the course of study and have mediocre understanding of child life and child nature."
6. "I do not think that if two teachers were placed side by side, one having had psychology and pedagogy and the other not having had them, any difference could be found."
7. "I have grave doubts whether the work in psychology and pedagogy has any direct bearing upon the work in the classroom. . . . Our theory and our practice are too widely separated."

How psychology was presented in several classes

1. "Perception is the process by which the mind completes an impression of sense by an escort of images."
2. "The currents running down the axon jump across the synapse for connection with the other axon."
3. "In neurological education we knit up synaptically the association areas of the brain."
4. "Perceptive consciousness is a necessary accompaniment of all psychic facts." (Young student first year out of high school.)
5. Tuba, fenestra, ovalis, endolymph, perilymph, basilar

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membrane were used in a study of "the ear in psychology."

6. Lack of emphasis upon teaching problems in psychology is illustrated by the following topics discussed in one psychology class:

- (1) Psychology of Religion.
- (2) Animal Psychology.
- (3) Dreams.
- (4) Hypnotism.
- (5) Telepathy.
- (6) Historically, the Influence of Stimulation on Mental Activity. Its uses and abuses.
- (7) Psychology in Business.
- (8) Prayer.
- (9) Habits.

7. In four recitations observed in psychology not a single concrete illustration was given by the instructor.
8. In another four recitations no attempt was made by instructor to show relationship existing between theories discussed and teaching problems.
9. One test in psychology included these topics:

- | | |
|---|--|
| (1) Formal Discipline | (15) Psychology of Nervous Disorders |
| (2) General Discipline | (16) Psychology of Hallucination |
| (3) Special Discipline | (17) Spiritualism |
| (4) Functional—Faculty View of Mind | (18) The Power of Suggestion |
| (5) Structural View of Mind | (19) Our Superstitions |
| (6) Faculty View of Mind | (20) Suggestive Healing |
| (7) Unitary View of Mind | (21) Illusions and Hallucinations |
| (8) Hereditary View of Mind | (22) Relation of Brain and Personality |
| (9) Potentiality of Brain | (23) Pragmatism |
| (10) Centers of Association | (24) Hypnotism |
| (11) Instinctive Reactions | (25) Christian Science |
| (12) Reflex Reactions | (26) Psychic Healing |
| (13) Social Psychology | |
| (14) Perceptions, Illusions, and Hallucinations | |

10. "Qualities which constitute the object's externality," "intellectual synthesis," "empirical psychology," "sensation complexes" engaged other youngsters.

11. "Do we have an independent entity or transcendental ego to unite thoughts as a combining medium?" "Do we need to possess an independent ego to explain personal identity?" were asked.
12. "Purposeful volition," "discriminating assistance," "selective attention," "psychical energy," "focusing physiological function in cerebral areas" were used to explain "attention" to another class.
13. "Environment is the proper kind and variety of stimuli." Teacher followed by asking: "What do we mean by stimuli?" Pupils replied: "Knowledge, sensation, material, it's how we do the thing that makes us move." Without clearing up this question the instructor proceeded: "Variety of experience gives rise to complexity of experience. Education is the interpretation of stimuli."
14. "I shall do my best to persuade the president to require a year of philosophy as a prerequisite to this course," wrote an instructor of students with only two years above the high school in which to make preparation for teaching.

Relating theory to practice — needs

1. Generally speaking, teachers of theory lacked the practical teaching experience which would fit them to present properly problems of teaching in their classroom work.
2. One instructor complains of lack of opportunity for observing "what we discuss in the way of methods of teaching."
3. Suggestion for improved normal-school work! "A change of heart attitude is needed on the part of normal teachers so they would not consider the work of the training school beneath them."
4. "Why do they talk of imaginary or far-away children when any number of Mary's and John's are at hand?"

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5. Very few theses written by seniors about to graduate were based on study carried on in training schools.

Reasons cited for poor teaching

1. Instructors (several) were out of sympathy with the instruction of children through lack of knowledge of that work or through personal temperament.
2. Too much work must be covered in a short time.
3. Teachers were not permitted to visit public schools except by paying their own traveling expenses.
4. Great number of students and of recitations and preparations per day makes almost impossible practical written tests which involve close and careful correction of papers.
5. Instructors of music and drawing complained because they were compelled to teach in the same classes students who knew little or nothing about these subjects, with others who had considerable training and experience.
6. "Exceedingly difficult to arrange excursion work."
7. Personal conceit.
8. Satisfaction with their own methods.
9. Exaggeration of the importance of academic training, etc.—e.g., "Why should he (the president) dictate? None of them (regents' inspectors) have ever had a special training covering years in my line as I have had. . . . I cannot see what I could gain by seeing any one teach my classes in a line where the one doing so was only an amateur. . . . I would be glad to have Jastrow of Madison or Münsterberg of Harvard teach any of my psychology classes, but I think it would be presumptuous for any one not equal in knowledge of the subject to try to show me how to teach it."
10. 52 instructors insisted that the president could not supervise their work.
11. Room was crowded, poorly lighted, and wholly un-

suit for the purpose for which it was being used. As instructor spoke he referred to materials and apparatus on a small table which could be seen only by those near by. Students able to see the apparatus were interested and followed the instructor. Others were not interested and paid little attention to what was going on. No provision was made for students to work at the experiments in the laboratory.

12. Use of time for "detail work that a clerk might well do."
13. Student programs too heavy; many attended six classes per day. Often they have every period in the day filled from 8 A. M. to 8:30 P. M.
14. "The only time normal students have for real down-right continuous study is from 7 to 10 P. M."
15. Instructors complained of the disadvantages of teaching physics to boys and girls in the same class because of differences in natural interests and inclinations.
16. "More time is needed for instructors in normal department to visit public schools."

General needs voiced by faculty

1. Teachers in a normal school should keep in touch with the teaching of children by teaching them occasionally and not rely on the fact that they sometimes in the past have had such experience.
2. Instructors should be acquainted with work done in elementary schools of city and state and with the course of study in the same, and must see that work in relation to the branch they are teaching.
3. Members of the faculty should be both in theory and practice familiar with public school work; in fact, should have experience in public school teaching: of 192 instructors reporting, 90 had visited schools; 92 had not; 10 did not answer.
4. There is a great need for closer unity of purpose and feeling between the normal and the public school; the

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student should have a term of teaching in a real public school before finishing. Conditions in the training school are never quite the same no matter how much we try to make them so.

5. Students need to see more good teaching.
6. Common branches should be taught more with the idea of preparing students to teach these subjects.
7. More actual use of educational procedure is needed in normal-department classrooms.
8. It is illogical to insist on certain points in English in the department of English and have the same points constantly violated in other departments with impunity.
9. No one who is not in daily contact with children and has not been for years can carry the professional side in connection with the academic, however anxious and willing he may be.
10. People who have charge of the various departments in the training school should be teachers of **scholarship, and experience and personality.**
11. Academic and professional training should be given in one subject by the same teacher.
12. Some arrangement is needed for occasional leave of absence with at least half salary.
13. Courses should be provided to prepare students to be principals of graded schools. A graduate who is to become principal of a graded school should be familiar with work from the primary grades through the eighth grade.
14. Observation should precede practice.
15. The placing of teachers should be more fully in the hands of the principal of the training school; students should definitely understand that the faculty of the training department must recommend them for position; presidents sometimes place students independently; success in the training school sometimes seems to count for nothing.

For Memoranda by Reader

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16. "Our graduates during the first year of their teaching are mere copyists of critic teachers. During the second year they show sporadic signs of independence. During the third year they begin to find themselves."
17. "Our educational work is not sufficiently practical; it does not relate sufficiently to the life of the community and the experience of the pupils."
18. "Our system prevents any considerable measure of extramural influence."
19. Penmanship should be taught by definite and well-matured methods.
20. Correspondence courses should be offered by the normal schools under the direction of special full-time teachers.

Out-of-class activities sometimes interfere with training

1. Instructors complain that because of participation by the students in school activities some students do almost nothing in their regular work.
2. When training students for oratorical or other contests weeks of their time are so taken up with drilling that their regular work is much neglected.

Athletics interfere

On account of the limited number of boys, practically the same group participate in all the competitive athletics.

Pre-normal preparation of students inadequate

1. Students "weak in knowing how to work, to do, to study, to think."
2. Show lack of power of concentration due (in my opinion) to too much entertainment provided in the grades.
3. "They do not know how to select the essentials from a page of printed matter."
4. "Their preparation seems to have given them the idea that they can satisfactorily learn a lesson by

reading through the words and giving these words to the teacher."

5. "Do not know a noun from a verb or a simple from a complex sentence."
6. "Poor readers, poor spellers, poor writers."
7. Poor in geography.
8. "I do not believe that over 5% of our students have ever read a book not fiction except those required in school work. This statement would be nearly true of magazine articles."
9. More than half of students "have never formed the habit of reading for pleasure and regard all reading as a task more or less arduous."
10. "It is nothing unusual for a student to divide $6\frac{1}{2}$ by $15\frac{1}{2}$ and secure an answer of 25 and a fraction and then not notice anything wrong." Students are generally poorly prepared in arithmetic; frequently teachers must spend a great deal of time on work ordinarily done in the fifth to eighth grades.
11. After two or even three years of "study of German in high school they rarely know elementary principles of the language, have a slovenly pronunciation, and are unable to get accurate information from the text."

41. Checking Written Work

Written work is almost as helpful to a self-surveyor as are finger prints to a police department or fossils to a geologist.

Courses of study, syllabuses, scales, observed teaching, pupil recitations are all significant indices. Yet all of them may mislead. Current written work—"off guard" writing—cannot easily mislead. So far as it gives a wrong picture it is apt to under-draw rather than to over-draw excellences.

"Off guard" written work by pupils containing "off guard" comments by teachers shows:

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1. Whether pupil's individuality is being studied by the teacher. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Whether pupils enjoy their work. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Whether pupils are doing independent thinking. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Whether precept or example with regard to language is fructifying in pupils' practice. *Y... N... ?...*
5. Whether pupils are correlating. *Y... N... ?...*
6. Whether supervision is thorough. *Y... N... ?...*
7. Whether corrections are fundamental as well as specific. *Y... N... ?...*
8. Whether written work is overdone. *Y... N... ?...*
9. Whether instruction is vital. *Y... N... ?...*
10. Whether handwriting or form is neglected. *Y... N... ?...*

42. *All the World's a Schoolroom*

That all the world's a stage and the men and women in it merely players we have been shown and believe, and call Shakespeare great for saying it.

That all the world's a schoolroom and the men and women in it merely teachers, we have not seen so clearly yet, although we are being shown it from every angle.

Every employer, every foreman, every boss, every parent, is also a teacher; not always an efficient teacher, but a teacher nevertheless. Likewise every employee is to a degree, we are just beginning to see, also a teacher—he teaches fellow-employees of the same rank, he teaches his subordinates, he teaches his superiors, way on up to his president, to public commission, to students and writers. That is one reason for not regarding, as waste, the energies spent upon normal-school students who do not remain to



State Normal School, Bellingham, Washington



Field study in physiography

State Normal School, Cheney, Washington



A geography field trip

State Normal School, Ellensburg, Washington

All the world's a schoolroom

graduate or who do not go into what is called school teaching.

The question for the survey is not only what percentage of students enrolled stay until they graduate or what percentage teach what is called school, but rather, whether every student learns to teach by practice and precepts in whatever position she is responsible for helping others of whatever age to learn.

The business world is teaching us much, if we will only study what it rejects and adopts. The new ideas in factory management are to begin analyzing and teaching.

1. When advertising for employees.
2. When interviewing applicants.
3. When trying out applicants.
4. When transferring and promoting employees, and when dismissing them.

43. Sidelights from Footlights

The great theatrical managers and producers are teachers. They do not write plays, they build them. They do not make or discover actors, they build them. They do not make or discover teachers, they build them.

One of these builders of plays and actors recently wrote how he builds. Several of his propositions fit teacher training so well that they are copied here.

1. I study the individual actors, noting where values and deficiencies lie. I observe when they cannot sustain scenes or speeches — when they are not good listeners — and make up my mind what I am going to do when I get them on my stage (in their classroom).
2. I always caution the stage director (critic teacher) to let them give him everything, that he must give them nothing. In this way they rely upon their own initiative and, so to speak, squeeze themselves dry.

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Their invention seems to grow when they know they can do as they please.

3. Infinite patience is needed to make others understand the soul of a character (pupil) as the author or producer (circumstances) conceives it and such patience, coupled with a knack of communicating his own ideas, must be possessed by every successful producer (teacher).
4. Experience has taught me not to direct my players (teachers or pupils) arbitrarily but to be guided by what they can best do. Their peculiarities are the results of temperament and personality, which the intelligent stage director should always attempt to preserve. I try to correct mannerisms when they are bad, for bad mannerisms are as destructive to good acting (reciting) as weeds to a garden; but when mannerisms are indexes of personality they have a distinct value.
5. One of the most frequent errors of dramatic criticisms (supervision) is to condemn the peculiarities of manner, gesture, and elocution which are really the distinguishing signs of histrionic ability (teaching).

IX

TRAINING DEPARTMENT'S TRAINING

TO advertise teacher-training without affording opportunities for observation and practice is considered "obtaining goods under false pretenses." When colleges lack such opportunities, they fall back upon the dogma — "teachers teach as they are taught, not as they are taught to teach"; but at the earliest possible moment they supplement their best "barehanded" teaching with laboratories for observation and practice. Sometimes these laboratories are in public schools or again in special so-called "training schools."

An hour in the training department, i.e., the department which oversees student observation and practice in training schools, will disclose more to self-surveyors than weeks in academic departments. The Wisconsin survey found many lessons in its visits to training departments.

Examples of coöperation between training and academic departments

1. Head of history department spent considerable time observing classes in model school. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Supervisor in training school has teachers visit normal-department classes. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Head of education department discussed before whole faculty his course in methods — questions asked by faculty members. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Normal-department teachers assisted training-department teachers in making out course of study for training school. *Y... N... ?...*
5. Supervisor of drawing in model school holds frequent conferences with teachers in training school. *Y... N... ?...*
6. The abilities and characteristics of each normal-

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school pupil reported upon by normal department before she begins practice teaching. Y... N... ?...

7. Classes in psychology visit game parties when teachers meet them to talk over the work and answer students' questions. Y... N... ?...
8. Normal-department instructors in history and grammar teach these subjects to the 7th and 8th grade pupils in the training school. Y... N... ?...
9. Teacher of special methods discussed before entire faculty the relation of his work to the other normal departments and especially to the training school. Y... N... ?...
10. Head of dormitory confers with principal of training school on needs of girls doing practice work. Y... N... ?...
11. Normal instructor confers with principal of training school respecting the application of normal-school work in commercial geography and penmanship to the work of geography and penmanship in the training school. Y... N... ?...
12. Ten results of coöperation between normal and training departments were noted:
 - a. Unity in the two departments as to terminology, definitions, etc. Y... N... ?...
 - b. Teachers in normal department more awake and in touch with actual school and grade work. Y... N... ?...
 - c. Importance of attention to method on the part of department heads emphasized. Y... N... ?...
 - d. View of training teachers broadened. Y... N... ?...
 - e. Practice teaching encouraged. Y... N... ?...
 - f. Work of the normal school centered in the laboratory, the training school, and hence helps

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to hold to the real purpose of the scheme — that of training teachers for service in the schools.
Y... N... ?...

g. More practical handling of the professional courses. Y... N... ?...

h. Less duplication of work. Y... N... ?...

i. More definiteness and more practical work in both departments. Y... N... ?...

j. Respect for others' work. Y... N... ?...

Lack of coöperation between training school and normal department

1. Normal teachers do not desire assistance from training teacher in planning subject matter of courses.
Yes... No... ?...
2. Training teachers have no means of knowing what is being taught in normal department or how it is taught. Y... N... ?...
3. Frequently the normal department insists on one thing with respect to instruction in a subject while the training department insists on something quite different. Y... N... ?...
4. Students sent to observe a recitation and report on "suitability" of material had never considered what makes material suitable; consequently their reports were vague and their time wasted. Y... N... ?...
5. One instructor tried to convince the teachers of pedagogy that "the science of psychology and the psychology of school teaching were two very different things." Y... N... ?...
6. Several teachers of theory insist that psychology should be taught in a normal school as an independent science and refuse to adapt or relate it to teaching.
Y... N... ?...
7. Instructor said: "As far as I know the English department does not keep in touch with the training

- department; have never been asked by any teacher in the normal school as to what he should teach or how he should teach it." Y... N... ?...
8. "Have conducted institutes and given talks on primary reading and language and never consulted the teacher in primary department." Y... N... ?...
 9. "I do not keep in close touch with the training school because if I do all that is required in my regular work I have no time for the training school." Y... N... ?... [Why not teach there?]
 10. The relation between the normal department and the training school often made it impossible for the two departments to coöperate fully in the training of students for teachers. In every school instructors in both departments spoke in the most slighting terms of the work of the other. Y... N... ?...
 11. Until the training department is accorded the recognition to which it is entitled, until it becomes the very heart of normal-school work, the training of students in the art of teaching cannot be made effective.
 12. "The academic normal-department teacher with college training and a better salary than the critic considers the critic inferior, and the critic on her part resents the lack of preparation for the work of teaching shown by the students who come to her." Y... N... ?...

Observation work and class teaching: efficiency earmarks

1. After the work of any teacher in the training school is observed, this teacher is invited to be present next day at conference where students are encouraged to criticize and question frankly and freely. Yes... No... ?...
2. Instructor in methods of arithmetic takes a fourth-grade class in the training school and teaches it 10 weeks for students to observe. Y... N... ?...

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3. Of 22 instructors who require written reports of observation work done, 14 report these must be submitted to instructor in charge and also to critic teacher visited.
4. One training school is wholly a school of observation and demonstration; thus students have opportunity to see and to study really expert teaching. Y... N... ?...
5. Students taking method in history observe their critic teach eighth grade history — following is a discussion, critic who teaches lesson in charge. Y... N... ?...
6. It is insisted that interests of children shall be always safeguarded and that they shall not be exploited for the sake of giving training to prospective teachers. Y... N... ?...
7. Each training-school teacher does some teaching of children. Y... N... ?...
8. Pupils are required to think while standing and are held to correct sentence structure. Y... N... ?...
9. **Arithmetic.** An eighth-grade class with student teacher in charge worked orally no less than 50 simple problems involving numbers up to 24 in a 30-minute period.
10. **Geography.** A fourth-grade class under direction of critic was reciting on South America. Teacher asked each pupil to tell most interesting thing he knew about South America. Great variety of information effectively told. The specific and definite information these children had upon the continent as a whole was astonishing. Few eighth-grade pupils or even students in the normal department could have done as well. Teacher constantly asked, "Where did you learn this?" or "Where did you read that?" Replies brought out that these children had access to a large number of geographical readers and books of

travel. One boy whose statement regarding the size of the Amazon was questioned immediately came back with a paragraph from Carpenter's *South America* which supported the statement he had made.

After the recitation, critic stated that these children read a great deal and pointed to a large number of single copies of books of travel. Visitor said, "But can they read these?" Teacher asked class to take out copies of a well-known geographical reader usually used in the seventh and eighth grades. She turned to a chapter which the class had never read. Different pupils who were called on read easily and readily. The only help given was on the pronunciation of an occasional geographical name.

- II. Grammar. Eighth grade in training school. Work of these boys and girls a revelation. Perfectly familiar with constructions like predicate noun, predicate adjective, direct object, indirect object, etc. For example, teacher announced "predicate noun" and called on a pupil. He responded: "Wilson is president. 'President' is the predicate noun because it completes the copulative verb 'is' and refers to same person as Wilson." For 15 minutes exercises of this sort were continued. Every pupil recited at least once. Most of them recited three times. Drill was so rapid that several recitations could be made within a minute.

Reading: efficiency earmarks

12. A group of 15 first-grade children in school five months were reading easily "The Boy Who Cried Wolf." The words in the story read were difficult,—e.g., pastor, working, laughed, carried, etc.
13. A group of 15 third-grade children in charge of student teacher pronounced without the slightest hesitation such words as circulate, atmosphere, replies, plumage, temperature.

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14. Third-grade children pronounced without difficulty 30 words especially difficult for this grade, such as Tennessee, indicate, attractiveness, recitation, constitution, investigation.

Practice teaching: efficiency earmarks

1. Classes taught for students by critic to bring out different steps in presentation, drill, and testing. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Informal talks to students on ideals of discipline and management of the schoolroom. *Y... N... ?...*
3. Informal discussion of the psychology of child nature and application to the children in class. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Question box used for student questions, afterwards discussed at conference. *Y... N... ?...*
5. Notes of weaknesses displayed; in conferences these were discussed and helpful and constructive criticism given. *Y... N... ?...*
6. General topics discussed conducive to establishing professional spirit. *Y... N... ?...*
7. Public school used. *Y... N... ?...*
8. Almost daily conferences with students to discuss the criticisms and suggestions made. *Y... N... ?...*
9. Student teacher has access to a written report giving the estimate of the critic upon every lesson taught which the critic observed, with detail of the teaching deficiencies noted and suggestions upon which to base improvement. *Y... N... ?...*
10. At the close of the semester a complete record shows the strength and weakness of each student's teaching as well as the method of the critic in helping students in the practice teaching. *Y... N... ?...*
11. Students constantly refer to work done in psychology and pedagogy. *Y... N... ?...*

12. Example of specific criticism by critic teacher. Critic had made list of questions asked by student teacher during recitation. From these she led the student teacher to point out those questions which promote thinking on the part of the student, those which require him to reproduce the text, those which suggested the answer, etc. Student teacher went from conference with improved ideals for questioning and with a specific knowledge of where she had failed and where she had been successful.

Training-school conditions needing attention—to be checked against local practice

1. At least one third of training-school teachers taught children in a way that would not be tolerated in well supervised graded schools. Duplicated? *No... ?... Yes... Where?*
2. From one third to one half of the training teachers had no definite comprehensive plan for effectively training students to teach. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
3. In several training schools the work of critics and supervisors was notably poor. Ideals were not set up and the time of student teacher and children was wasted. Some critics take the position that the student teacher "must have the practice" and that "he must depend upon himself." The main advantage of this doctrine is that it permits the critic to do nothing except find fault after the thing is done. Even this often has little of help in it. On the other hand the critic is handicapped because of the meagerness of the preparation of the student teacher and the need to meet the exigencies of the situation. In some schools even very good critics cannot bring their schools up to a reasonable standard because of the handicaps of the situation. *N... ?... Y... Where?*

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4. One great difficulty in the practical work of student teachers in training lies in the fact that in several schools there are not enough pupils (sometimes only 4 to 6) to be taught for the number of students to be trained. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
5. Teaching by students in training school was done under conditions so abnormal and so unlike those found in public schools that the training loses much of its value. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
6. There was little indication that training departments in normal schools were taking the lead in a reorganization of the courses of study for the elementary schools of the state. *Y... ?... N...*
7. In six years one training school had five supervisors. *Y... ?... N...*
8. Critic teachers rarely teach. Even "weekly critiques" which consist of model lessons presented before all student teachers practicing at the time are taught by students. Under this arrangement students have practically no opportunity to observe superior teaching except as done by students. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
9. "When the critic teacher is busy either with direct supervision in the classroom or with conferences from eight o'clock to twelve and from one o'clock to five, there is no time for library work, extension work, inspirational work, or to give the pupils the individual attention that they should have. The evenings are spent in reading the students' plans and in preparation of the work for the next day."
10. Criticism by critics is frequently general instead of specific; e.g., "You don't question well." "You fail to organize your material, etc." without giving specific examples of where student teacher failed to question well or failed to organize material. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
11. That the critic criticized without making clear how to

- correct the fault was alleged by students in every school. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
12. Critic teacher sat calmly by, occasionally jotting down a note or two while student teacher wasted entire class period of first-grade reading class. *N... ?... Y... Where?*
 13. There is very little chance in training school for a student to show originality, as he is supervised so closely. *Y... N... ?...*
 14. In no school was there a permanent record card for pupils in the training school. *Exceptions?*
 15. No systematic study was made to find out what children need special attention and why. *N... Y... ?... Where?*
 16. "One teacher comes to me this quarter for ten weeks' work. The only way I can arrange her program with mine gives her a class in history. On looking up her credits I find she failed in professional history and is a poor student generally. I do not wish to give her the class but must. Why? Because she graduates in June and must get her practice in." *How often?*
 17. In a rural school under management of a normal school, thermometer showed a temperature of 82 degrees with furnace draughts open; in the same school seats were arranged so that pupils faced four windows.
 18. In one room in which there were adjustable seats but in which the seating conditions were particularly bad, the teacher did not know that the seats in her room were adjustable.
 19. Practically no attempt had been made to adjust seats to pupils in four schools. *Y... N... ?...*
 20. Teaching of first-grade reading by bright, enthusiastic student a farce because she had not been properly directed as to method of procedure.
 21. A first-grade class in school 6½ months read with

great difficulty the following: *Here is a house. It is a big house. It is Jack's house. It is a dog's house.* In no instance did any child in the class correctly read a single story the first time. Word *house* called *boy*, *dog* called *baby*, *there* called *is*, etc. These children had no basis upon which to build the pronunciation of the words. Their time had been practically wasted.

22. Work in arithmetic was largely formal and mechanical. *Y... N... ?...*
23. Arithmetic class — fourth grade — critic teacher in charge. Class had memorized table of liquid measure but did not sense relation of facts to problems given. Inquiry showed that although two lessons had been given on this topic and although a set of the needed measures was a part of the school equipment, measures had not been used to show objectively by actual measuring that two pints equal one quart, etc.
24. A sixth-grade class in geography was a complete failure because the lesson contained words they did not understand.
25. Penmanship is neglected — for this reason teachers go out unprepared to teach this subject. *Y... N... ?...*
26. In one school all students during semester are asked in conference wherein the supervision of critic teacher is helpful. Students are encouraged to be wholly frank. Following are the criticisms most frequently made by the students:
 - (1) That it is difficult to understand what some supervisors want. *Yes... No... ?...*
 - (2) That their criticisms and suggestions are vague and indefinite. *Y... N... ?...*
 - (3) That they fail to point out how defects may be remedied. *Y... N... ?...*
 - (4) That frequently they do not tell students

whether or not their work is unsatisfactory.

Y... N... ?...

(5) That sometimes criticisms are made in an unkindly way. *Y... N... ?...*

(6) That some critics stay in class so persistently that student teachers do not have a chance to be themselves and that they are not "free to get hold of the class." *Y... N... ?...*

(7) That the "constant presence" of the "critic" is nerve racking and a real hardship. *Y... N... ?...*

Poor teaching invited — grading too lenient

1. No determined effort is made by faculties of some normal schools to weed out the unfit or those who fail in teaching. Instead there is a decided tendency to hold and finally to graduate students who are unfit to become teachers. One reason for this is the scramble for numbers. *Yes... No... ?...*
2. Too many sympathetic grades are given to students who do not know enough to teach. *Y... How often? N... ?...*
3. The enrollment is too big a factor in the system. Quantity obscures quality. *Y... N... ?...*
4. Pressure is exerted to send inefficient students out as graduates. *N... ?... Y...*
5. The judgment of teachers who had failed students was frequently reversed by some presidents. *Y... N... ?...*

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X

EXTRA-CURRICULAR ACTIVITIES OF STUDENTS

44. *Social Life and Organizations*

A CERTAIN normal-school president frequently points a moral or adorns a tale by relating the story of a former student who lost an unusually fine teaching position because he ate with his knife where polite usage calls for a fork. One of his teachers comments as follows upon this experience:

"The saddest thing about this true story is not the fact that the young man lost his position but that a school for the training of teachers should send out a student with so little social training. In no line of employment does correct form play a more important part than in that of teaching."

Many normal schools are meeting this problem through providing for their students a full social life within the school walls. Socials, dancing parties, and receptions are given. In addition one normal school divides its students into groups, each under the special charge of a faculty member who entertains his group in his home at least once during the semester.

Some of these social affairs are very informal, but all of them include a receiving line and a hostess or hosts. One student returning at the close of his first year of teaching said: "The best thing this school did for me was to teach me to shake hands with my hostess when I came and to say good-by when I left. If I had not learned those things here I should have queered myself the first time I attended a social function."

What social opportunities and tests are given each student, whether they are organized or unorganized, whether they are monopolized by those who need them least or shared by those who need them most, and whether they are overdone, are questions for the self-surveyor.

Success in teaching depends quite as much upon table con-

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version and social facilities as upon scholarship. In a general way normal schools recognize this by encouraging outside student activities, such as debating societies, inter-school oratorical and debating contests, within-school and interschool athletics, and special student clubs. Nowhere is learning via doing more effective than via these student activities.

The self-surveyor's problem is first to find the facts and then to ask whether full training use is being made of student activities:

1. What activities are there?
2. How many pupils are in each? How many are eligible to each?
3. How many activities is each student engaged in?
4. How many students engage in no outside activities? Why not? Because they are earning? Because they are timid? Because they are not agreeable companions?
5. What is done for the students who are not in any organization?
6. What general social events are there that include the unorganized students?
7. What activities are strongest? Why?
8. What activities are weakest? Why?
9. Are literary activities among these?
10. In what ways does classroom work utilize student activities for training purposes? Does the English instructor give credit for work on school journals or in debating and literary societies?
11. Are students asked upon registering what activities they are interested in, particularly what outside activities they participated in while at high school? *Yes... No... ?...*
12. Are there cliques or fraternities? If so, does spending power determine invitations? *Y... N... ?...*

13. In what ways are student activities supervised? Must mixed parties be chaperoned? What are the hours for stopping?
14. Are parties concentrated in the week ends? *Y... N... ?...*
15. Must advance notice be given of parties and provision made for chaperoning? *Y... N... ?...*
16. Must student accounts be kept according to a prescribed plan? *Y... N... ?...*
17. Is keeping accounts made a basis for education and training? *Y... N... ?...*
18. Does a student's promptness in paying bills and in discharging obligations in student societies influence his rating by the president as in the case of River Falls, Wisconsin, normal? *Y... N... ?...*
19. To what extent and in what ways do townspeople entertain students in private homes? through church sociables?

45. *Student Self-Government*

For development of character, citizen, responsibility, leadership ability, power of discipline and self-discipline, few devices can accomplish so much as student self-government. Incidentally it releases faculty energy for other services to students that accomplish far more than policing services. Its dangers are not really dangerous because easily seen in time and corrected.

There are so many degrees and kinds of student self-government that self-surveyors will do well first to ask what, if any, kind or degree is present in a particular school; why further development of self-governing plans has not been tried; what, if any, local experiments have been made; what the results seem to be and why; and then write to the National Self-Government Association, 2 Wall Street, New York City, for its many kinds of helpful information.

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46. *Dormitories and Living Conditions*

One reason why normal schools have grown weaker in competition for strongest and most ambitious men and women is that the living and social conditions of normal-school towns have been less inviting. Modest living is compulsory. In many instances a low cost of living would permit a much higher standard of living than normal schools have made possible.

The two methods of improving conditions of living without unduly raising the cost are via dormitory and via rigid supervision of lodging and boarding facilities.

As to dormitories, the first question is whether a school has dormitories; the next is whether the dormitories are self-supporting and whether they are satisfactory and inviting. It is possible to make dormitories both self-supporting and satisfactory. Wherever normal school dormitories are losing money or while self-supporting are unsatisfactory there is a remedy.

The practical steps for self-surveyors include these questions:

1. How many students can each dormitory room? How many single rooms? How many double rooms?
2. What is the charge for rooms only? Upon what is the charge based?
3. Are differences in desirability of room — size, light, exposure — reflected in prices?
4. What social privileges are provided and encouraged?
5. Are underclassmen required to live in dormitories?

There are two reasons for unpopularity of normal-school dormitories: (1) the student care of student rooms, and (2) the low cost of meals. In few instances the main trouble is high cost of both rooms and board. There is a widespread fear of the standard of living for normal-school students that approximates the standard of living of their own homes. Unless care of rooms is required, it will be-



Gathering student-raised tomatoes

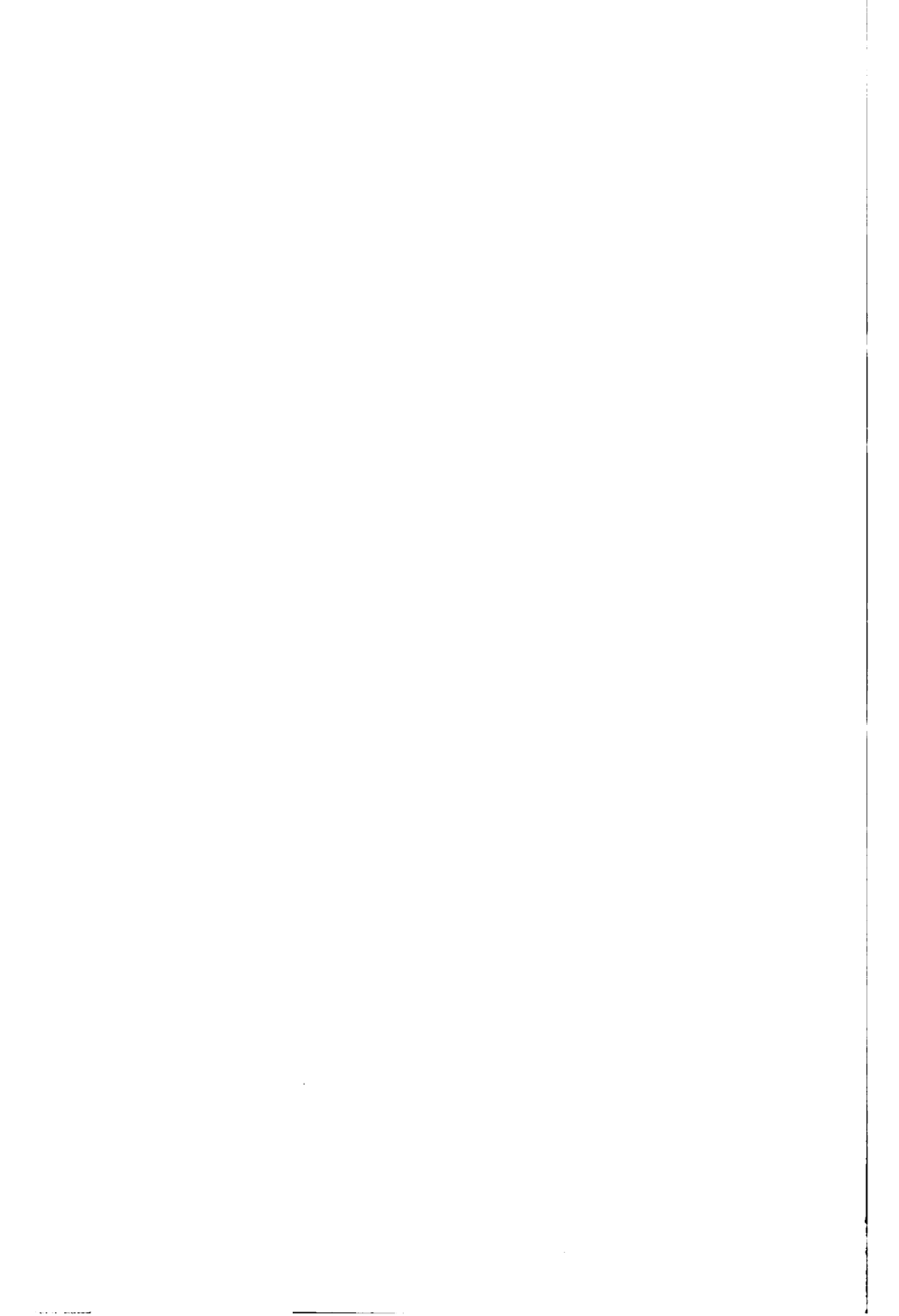
State Normal and Industrial School for
Women, Harrisonburg, Virginia



Canning student-raised tomatoes

Harrisonburg

Teaching via work that needs to be done



come socially undesirable to live in a dormitory where a student cares for her own room. Once student participation in making and serving meals is required, leisure-class standards will disparage voluntary participation in such "menial" work, etc.

One of the problems which normal schools and colleges must face is whether they have any right to permit, not to say foster and compel, standards of student boarding and student rooming which places normal-school or college courses beyond the reach of a considerable proportion of boys and girls who possess excellent qualifications for teaching.

Why should boys and girls whose fathers and mothers earn a living by service, who help do family chores and cook or wait on table, feel ashamed when receiving instruction at state expense to do for themselves room services and meal services which will keep down the cost of normal schools to their own parents and to taxpayers? Why should we go on condoning an unwillingness to wash dishes for one's colleagues when at great expense we are being taught the science of domestic economy?

How much students help, what efforts have been made to democratize dormitory service, what evidence there is that students lose in health, scholarship, or social standing for participation in such service are questions which a self-survey can easily answer.

What goes upon the table for the price, what supplies cost, what the paid service costs, whether methods of purchasing, storing, checking in and checking out and appropriation are businesslike can easily be learned.

Of particular importance is it to ascertain what the tone of the dormitory is. Whether the service is neat and agreeable, whether food is tastefully and invitingly served, are important questions.

Not the least important question relates to table conversation. Any dormitory system that fails to develop the conversational abilities of its patrons, especially if these are pro-

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spective teachers and community leaders, has broken down in efficiency, no matter how admirably its financial and mechanical work is done.

Many normal-school men will say that it is the getting of dormitories which worries us. Legislatures certainly ought not to be asked to provide dormitories unless they are needed. Whether they are needed or not depends upon what outside facilities a community possesses. Even if every normal-school student could be housed in a private house, there are reasons why the state could better afford to erect dormitories than to lose the advantage of team spirit and of training in conversation, in discipline, and in school service which dormitories make possible.

The survey of projects for dormitories calls for questions like these:

1. Is the plan businesslike?
2. Will dormitories be self-supporting?
3. Is the dollar-and-cent argument convincing?
4. Is provision made to carry not only the operation costs, including repairs, but also the sinking-fund costs? In other words, does the plan ask the state merely for an advance of money to be repaid out of room and board charges?

For rooms outside of college dormitories cards permitting specific description should be furnished and filled out. This is the only way normal schools can keep down costs and enforce a minimum standard of decencies and comforts in lodging rooms.

It is not enough to have a general verdict that Mrs. A is a nice landlady. It is Mrs. A's room which is hired and not her front-door manner.

For men students as well as women students it is important to know whether there is a bathroom, where it is, how far from each room; whether there is a window or more than one and what light and ventilation it supplies; what amount and quality of artificial light there is, whether kero-

sene, gas, or electricity, and whether it is eye protecting or eye spoiling; whether there is a closet or clothespress, and prices, etc.

The rooming directory stating facts, if issued in time and especially if circulated among parents and school principals as well as at the college, will obviously put a premium upon rooms at reasonable rates which offer adequate facilities approved by college authorities.

Several schools make at least one annual inspection, thus keeping the directory up to date. In addition to the rooming inspection is an inspection of the general hygienic surroundings of rooming quarters and particularly of restaurants and boarding houses patronized by students.

In protecting students' living conditions normal schools will wisely employ students in making surveys, thus training them for community and school service elsewhere and for the important civic duty of continuously inspecting their own living standards and of budgeting their resources.

47. Hygiene Instruction via Supervision of Student Health

There have been great teachers who were in ill health, weak, and diseased. The twentieth century has frankly taken the position, however, that it is unfair for society to accept teaching service from a person who is not only not free from disease but also not possessed of health and vitality; that it is unfair to growing boys and girls to put them in charge of teachers who lack health, vitality, and freedom from disease.

Among the minimum essentials for promotion in the business world good health and freedom from physical defects are more and more insisted upon, and large commercial and industrial concerns go so far, as a matter of sheer dollar-and-cent economy, without the slightest regard to humanitarian aspects, as to insist upon employees having physical examinations, correcting physical defects disclosed, maintaining a high state of physical efficiency as shown by re-

examination, and living in hygienic surroundings. Several concerns refuse to employ a person, for example, who will not have his teeth attended to; so important are sound teeth, even among laborers, to business efficiency that concerns lend employees money for dental care.

Colleges and technical schools are vying with the business world in exacting physical efficiency and in providing environment and instruction to insure it.

Normal schools cannot in fairness to their own students, and least of all in fairness to the pupils in public schools whom their students will teach, lag behind private business, technical schools, and colleges.

Any normal school or college of education which in our day is found to lack earmarks of practical instruction in hygiene and effective supervision of student health will be found also to lack other minimum essentials of efficient instruction and supervision.

One of the shortcuts to the strong and weak points of any teacher-training institution lies via survey of its hygiene precept and practice.

The most advanced steps taken in teaching, examining, and follow-up health work will be found briefly summarized and illustrated in *Record Aids in College Management*. Suffice it here to emphasize the practicability and importance of having prospective teachers learn the technique of applying and teaching hygiene by experiencing in their own persons physical examination, adequate ventilation, adjustment of seats to bodies, proper diet, proper clothing, sufficient outdoor exercise of the right kind, correct posture, joy of living.

In addition to personal experience as a beneficiary of modern instruction and supervision in hygiene, prospective teachers should be able to see at work in model schools or in public schools the maximum of precaution and skill that modern public schools have developed.

Incidentally normal schools can train students in the art of showing the economic advantages to any school or com-



State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire

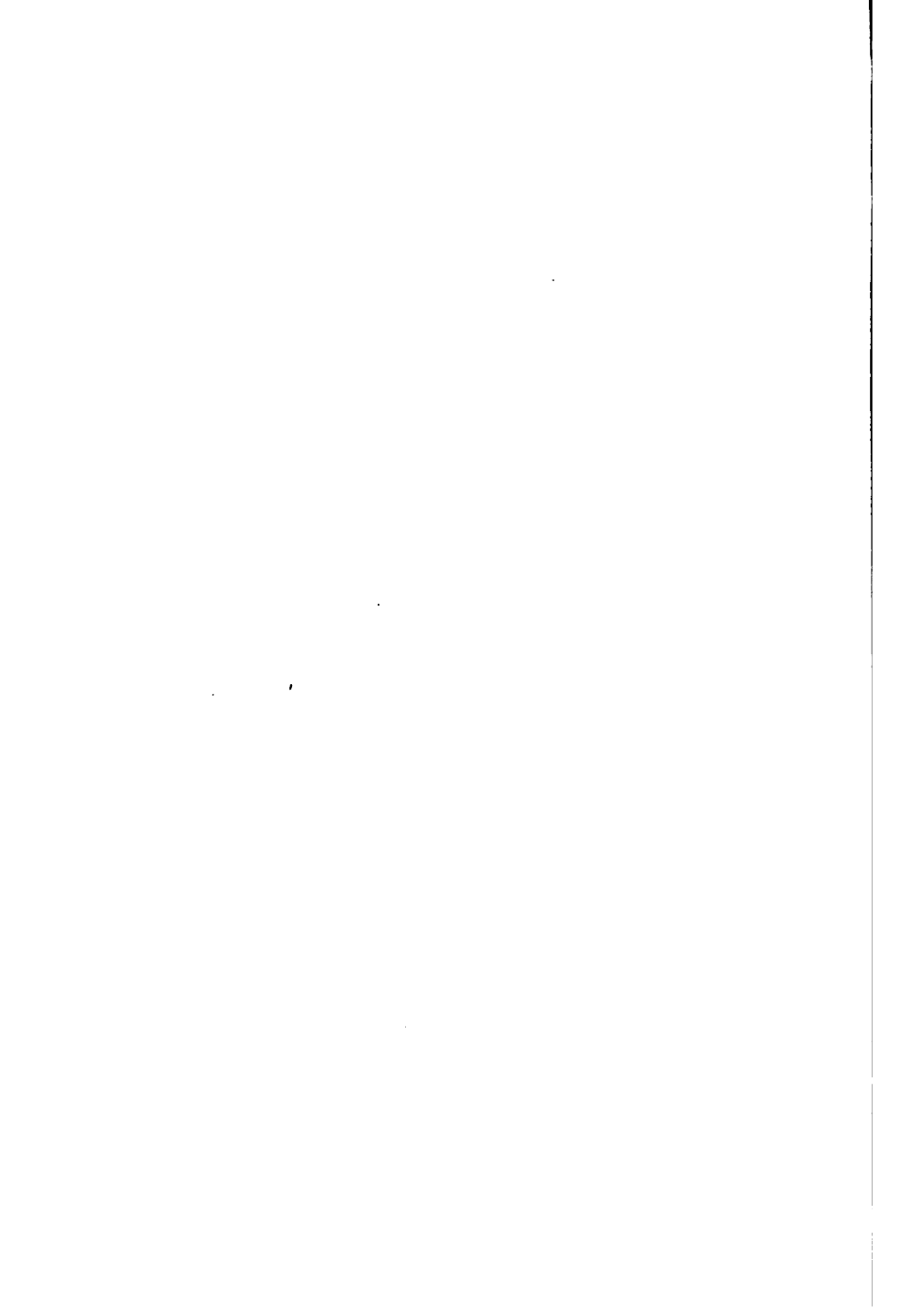


State Normal School, Edinboro, Pennsylvania



State Normal School, Keene, New Hampshire

Teaching hygiene via all school sports



munity of having adequate health supervision and instruction. They can be taught to look for the relation between ill-health and retardation, irregularity of attendance and low efficiency of pupil and teacher.

Among the minimum essentials that can be worked out by every normal-school management for training and normal departments are those of Exhibit I, which were recommended to the Milwaukee board of education after a survey by A. N. Farmer, F. L. Olson, and Mr. Allen.

For Memoranda by Reader

XI

TECHNIQUE OF REPORTING SURVEYS

48. *The Coöperative Survey Report*

HAVING compiled material, the task of making it available to others is often underestimated or misestimated. In several respects the Wisconsin normal-school survey will be helpful to other reporters:

Submitting manuscript for criticism. While ample time still remained for question and criticism, the report was submitted to three normal-school presidents, in part to one or two university professors, to an experienced newspaper man, and to several laymen. Submission was supplemented by conference. Whenever facts required it, modifications were made in content and form — of which, by the way, complete record was kept.

Pleasing, clear typography. The type is clear. Black-face type is liberally used to show organization and for emphasis.

Not all the conditions described exist in all the schools; neither do they exist in the same degree in each of the schools where they are found.

The committee on inspection and appropriations visits the schools yearly and studies their needs, reporting thereon to the board.

Capitals were sparingly used. For example, the table of contents was not spoiled by overuse of capitals.

The report suffers from eight-point and six-point type, used sometimes under pressure of economy and sometimes in recognition of the fact that only special audiences, which would be willing to read the small type, were involved. As the only purpose of printing a report is to reach an audience, it is poor economy to use very small type printed solid, as is too often done. For example, we regret the necessity for small type in this book's exhibits.

Effective title. Conditions and needs are the first words of the title. This emphasizes the objective character of the study and its constructive motive. **Report of Coöperative Survey** is the subtitle, which again stresses the helpful nature of the study.

Too many survey reports repel because of prominence given in the title to **survey**, or **report**, or the name of the surveyor.

Title on back cover. This is a detail which helps locate reports on library shelves.

Numbered paragraphs. At first numbered short paragraphs annoy readers. They pay their way, however, because they help the writer keep his resolutions of brevity and logical arrangement, and help the reader keep his mind on one thing at a time.

A reader can disagree with paragraph 23 without affecting his attitude toward paragraphs 24 and 22. It is not so easy to disagree with a not-so-clearly-segregated paragraph without turning against the whole page or chapter.

Indentation. Typical of the method used to show relations by type arrangement is the following from page 33:

- (b) **The efficiency of the training-school faculty as a whole is impaired by the great amount and variety of work required of the members.**

Of the 67 critic teachers, principals, and supervisors of practice

20 teach and supervise from 12½ to 30 hours per week, spend up to 21 hours in other assigned school activities, and from 4 to 27 hours in correcting lesson plans, reading reports of students, and in personal preparation for work.

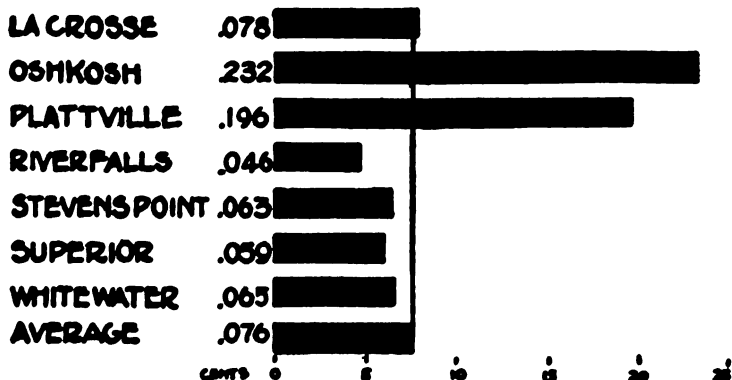
Graphs. So far as graphic methods were employed, they were quite effective, as shown on the following page. Please note the large type and the broad lines. Graphs are often rendered impotent by illegible explanations or lines so thin

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as to be indiscernible. A graph that needs explanation has obviously failed of its purpose.

It is a great mistake to spend public funds on studies resulting in long reports while failing to spend the little needed to make the message unmistakable.

DOM.SCI.& ARTS



Comparative Cost by Schools per Student Recitation Hour

Facts and recommendations listed separately. Two minds may agree as to facts but radically differ as to ways of correcting conditions described. Unless facts are listed separately and apart from criticisms and recommendations, confusion and controversy will needlessly prevent constructive effort.

XII

GENERAL NEEDS OF TEACHER-TRAINING SCHOOLS

49. *School Service Bureau*

EXTENSION work by normal schools via lectures and classes is already well under way.

Another phase of extension service was first tried out by President J. W. Crabtree of the Wisconsin state normal school at River Falls, where it promptly won such success that Dr. C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, incorporated both the idea and the demonstrator, Miss J. R. Rankin, within the state department's program. (Incidentally President Crabtree's test grew out of a short experience of Miss Rankin in answering requests for information addressed to Mr. Allen, when editing an educational column in a national magazine.)

Even when successfully demonstrated by a state department, the school-service idea will be needed by normal schools and their immediate constituency. Teachers encounter problems which while commonplace to the profession's vanguard are acute puzzles to them. For example: How can children be taught to read without teaching the letters first? Where has pupil self-government succeeded? What one school journal will help a principal most?

The logical "home" or alma mater of every teacher and parent is the normal school in his district. Approachability and desire to help seem next of kin to normal school. The likelihood of receiving an answer seems greater; the willingness to write is greater; the assumption of personal interest is clearer. On private colleges the public feels no claim. There will always be fear that asking certain questions or making certain suggestions to a state department or university which inspects them, or ranks them, and passes upon their share of state funds, may injure where the teacher or trustee wishes to help the local school.

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Where there are several normal schools in one state, they can use a central school-service bureau in the state department of public instruction for questions that their local experience and studies do not answer, while directly serving their own localities and especially their own graduates to the limit of their ability.

Not the least of the advantages of this school service is the fact that questions from the outside will help to keep the normal school itself alive and in vital touch with the schools for which it is fitting teachers; and in addition it will furnish laboratory material that will immeasurably help vitalize the teaching and practice work within the school itself.

50. *Coöperative Research and Information Bureau*

The question mark is a symbol of a vital normal school.

In what profession are so many questions asked and answered daily?

If it is no one's business to invite, collect, classify, reservoir, and answer questions, the asking habit becomes atrophied from disuse and disappointment. Companions to the question are criticism and suggestion.

Unless persistently requested and systematically handled, criticism and suggestion shrivel from chilly temperature. Few people have resilience to keep on making suggestion or voicing criticism to headquarters unless they see constructive use of it.

Unfortunately for those who resent criticism and inhibit suggestion, snubbing the critic does not stop the criticism, but merely drives it to cover where it smolders and undermines.

In every normal school — tomorrow — there will be organized a coöperative research and information bureau to which faculty members and students alike will be invited and urged to send question, suggestion, and criticism.

In larger schools a special faculty member will give per-

haps full time to this service; in others work will be distributed among several faculty members; in all schools students and teachers will use this service as a laboratory for training in research, formulation, and contact.

The first school system to organize such a plan for continuous coöperative self-study was that of Rochester, N. Y., which adopted Mr. Allen's suggestion that, instead of spending money on a detailed school survey by outsiders, it organize a bureau by which its own officers, teachers, and pupils might coöperate by asking and answering questions. Few even of the most expensive public-school surveys have led to such fundamental improvements as did this clearing house. In 1913 New York City established its division of reference and research, which included among its services the drafting of a plan for the study of the three training schools for teachers which is quoted on pages 192-198.

Has student, teacher, or trustee

A complaint?

A question about teaching or management?

A suggestion?

A desire to experiment?

An idea from school journals or daily press?

The coöperative bureau utilizes it for the benefit of every one in the system.

What has little value if kept by itself may have tremendous value when put with a half dozen or score of other suggestions or criticisms.

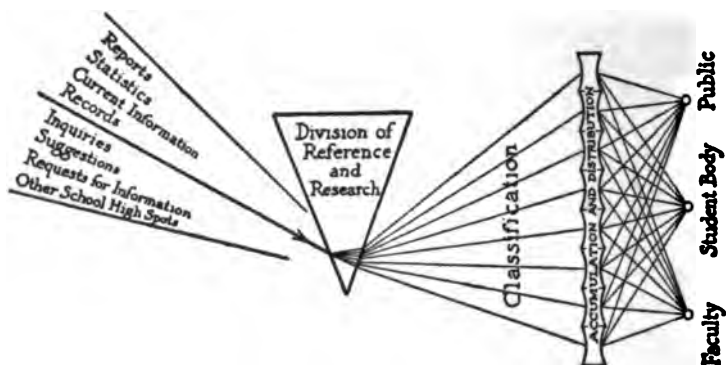
Current events in the educational field can be made of extensive practical value to all within a normal school if digested, classified, and distributed by a central bureau.

The usual chaotic, wasteful method of dealing with the willingness and ability of individuals to help by question, suggestion, criticism, or reading is not only wasteful but actually breeds discontent and indifference.

How a central bureau of coöperative research and information would utilize a chance unit of helpfulness for the

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benefit of the whole normal school is illustrated by the following graph:



Typical of concrete helps that come to normal schools from other schools are the following, gleaned from reports and bulletins about normal schools:

Whitewater, Wis., offers a course for principals; also a course in social education (18 weeks, two hours) including study of the school as a social institution and plans for social center work.

Lewiston, Ind., provides observation and practice work in several rural schools; lists in bulletin 9 pages of common errors in speech with correct forms; lists over 200 commonly mispronounced words; lends, free, a Babcock milk tester for one week each to teachers in rural schools; teaches school management; teaches the sociology of rural communities from the standpoint of the rural school.

Central State Normal School, Lock Haven, Pa., classes are separated into small groups and in charge of critic teachers visit rural schools. After these visits there is a thorough discussion of the organization, administration, teaching, and discipline of the rural school as well as of the problems of the rural community.

Bloomsburg, Pa., has a modern infirmary to which pupils

unable to attend recitations or meals are required to report for proper attention.

Illinois has extension centers for rural teachers — one director reaching ten centers each fortnight.

Minnesota's normal-school bulletin published in October, 1915, criteria for grading work and said of reading, "Definite standards known to the class should be used"; also "A simple entrance test, which would discover the students needing attention in thought-getting, would be valuable"; challenged wisdom of retaining longer in its present form the subject, History and Philosophy of Education; announced the regents' policy to discontinue the academic work of the five and three year courses.

Peabody College's president said: "If the rural education problem is ever to be solved, it must be solved largely by the normal schools."

Professor William C. Bagley contrasts normal-school with college salaries and says: "You cannot underpay and overwork a group of people without disastrous consequences to the regard in which these people are held by the public; there is every reason why normal-school education should be cheap to the student, but it is an unwarrantable conclusion that it should be a cheap sort of education; the point where national aid will do the most good in the shortest time is in connection with the training of teachers."

Toledo's teacher-training school sends practice teachers out into the schools with university practice supervisor to watch and help. What is more important, this practice supervisor continues observation after the teacher has been placed.

Hays, Kansas, boys of training school made a temporary gymnasium 35' x 65' covered with rubberoid; training school coöperated in city spring clean-up campaign.

Stevens Point, Wisconsin, reprints physical-record cards for model school and for young women and athletes' photographs in physical-training bulletin; illustrated special bulletin for rural-school department; gives extension work in

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rural schools in domestic art and domestic science; teaches sanitation five periods a week; girls learn house management by managing cottages in groups of four for three to five weeks each; features student activities; offers special work in teaching defectives.

St. Louis provides opportunity for any public-school teacher in the city to get a college degree in her spare time.

Keene, N. H., requires teachers in academic departments to teach in the training school.

Milwaukee advertises its special summer school of superintendents with bulletins showing the superiority of "plain, straight talks suitable for human nature's daily food and suggested by experiences — failures and successes — in the very work you have to do." Conference topics included the proper judging of schoolroom work, a brief analysis of surveys and surveyor's standarditis, the school budget; the right of the citizen to know; school publicity; dramatizing the facts; graphic representation and poster making, etc.

Cleveland's normal-school president insists that among minimum essentials for teachers is "definite knowledge of how to be supervised" and to that end is helping Cleveland's principals and teachers through extension classes.

Athens State Normal School (West Virginia) teaches civics via participation by students in community improvement: a sanitary survey of the town made by students, who also induced private homes to make surveys, to remove rubbish heaps, etc.; the domestic-science class invited different families to dinners prepared by the class, two faculty members being present to discuss community improvement and problems of general interest; contests were organized for better babies, lawns, rat and fly extermination; 500 grapevines were distributed; even churches competed for prizes for improvement of church lawns; the old normal campus was converted into a school village park; sidewalks were built about the town by men students and the faculty, the girls providing two lunches and a dinner; good roads were made with the help of students and faculty.

Chicago Normal College pays salaries much better than college rates; has a two-year stenographic course; organizes faculty meetings on self-survey basis; faculty members are under assignment to make inspections which they report at faculty meetings; the president teaches ethics, which is really social ethics, and says that when he cannot teach he will leave educational work; is part of a great public-school plant and uses both higher and elementary schools for observation and practice under normal-college supervision.

51. *Extension and After-Training Work by Teacher-Training School*

Both the school service bureau and the coöperative research bureau are forms of extension work. Both of them offer greater opportunities to normal schools than does the miscellaneous public lecturing which too often is the beginning and end of so-called extension work.

The first obligation of the normal school is to do efficiently the great work for which it is organized, viz., the training of teachers. No hundred per cent extension work which it can do will compensate for ten per cent breakdown or failure in its main service.

To permit so-called extension work to deflect attention from work for teachers is poor economy. Yet deflection and dissipation of energy are bound to be the effect unless the normal school refuses to do any extension work which does not demonstrably add to its efficiency as trainer of teachers. The tests of training efficiency are localized and objective, as preceding pages have shown.

Among extension activities which are more apt to increase than to decrease training efficiency because they offer training material and occasions for normal-school students, may be mentioned:

- I. After training of teachers in service, including courses, visitation, and demonstration conferences and correspondence.

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2. Teachers' institutes at the normal school.
3. Teachers' institutes away from the normal school at different urban and rural schools.
4. Parents' meetings or institutes, including work for farmers, domestic science, etc.
5. Coöperation with libraries, including instruction of teachers in use of libraries.
6. Practice and observation work in public schools in home towns and adjacent towns.
7. School surveys in coöperation with other communities.
8. Community surveys, industrial studies, etc., at request of communities with respect to fields where the normal school's competence is unquestioned, where the locality assumes responsibility and the normal school helps.
9. Corn-club or canning-club work.
10. Itinerant exhibits.

Speechmaking, formal courses and classes for instruction are not included in the above list because unless specifically guarded they may hinder where they aim to help normal work. While it is clear that somehow every locality should be guaranteed these continuation courses for adults other than teachers, the presumption is strong against normal schools being able to undertake such work without jeopardizing their own peculiar work.

In the first place the time is past when any normal school can do all the extension work which its locality needs. States only can afford the overhead costs necessary to insure fitted instruction to each ambitious person's need, under the state department of instruction as in Massachusetts, or the state university as in Minnesota.

Secondly, few normal-school faculties have the number of members needed to carry a diversified extension program.

Thirdly, the training of most normal-school instructors has not been such as to warrant expectation of effective-



Corn testing

Sauk County Training School, Reedsburg, Wisconsin



Testing milk

Reedsburg

County training schools responsive to local needs

ness in extension work as public speakers, or as instructors of small groups who can give little time to preparation and therefore call for popularity first.

Fourthly, what normal schools have the funds or can hope to secure the funds for a comprehensive extension program?

Fifthly, there are few men and women who, when forced to decide between shirking preparation for a popular audience or a temporary constituency and regular classes that will be met 200 to-morrows, will not neglect the regular classes.

By sticking to extension work which reflects itself directly and promptly in effectiveness at home in regular class and practice work, the normal school will be on safe ground.

Why should not every teacher-training school have a schoolmen's week such as now brings to the University of Pennsylvania's annual conference three hundred teachers and officers plus a continuing demand for extension classes in the "provinces"?

Nevertheless, it is incumbent upon a normal school as trustee of knowledge, technique, and vision to be the educational leader in its locality. Besides being its duty, the maintenance of educational leadership will help it to secure funds for extending and improving its service.

So long as no extension work is undertaken except for the reason that the normal school needs the contact for doing its own work, there will be little danger of superficial distracting work. To be effectively on their own jobs faculty members need to be part of the communities in which they live, carrying individual loads proportionate to their talents and to the time left by school duties (the first mortgage) for extra-school or second mortgage or philanthropic duties.

52. *The Normal School's Kinsmen*

Wherever conscious effort is being made to discover and train teaching ability, there is a member of the normal-

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school family. Like the Anglo-Saxons and Celts or Smiths and Browns, teacher-training family traits differ according to environment and recent forebears. The family traits are there, nevertheless, and near the surface are family resemblances.

While this book speaks of normal schools, it is addressed to the whole family of teacher-trainers, including

- so-called normal schools
- so-called county training schools
- so-called high-school training classes
- so-called college courses for teachers
- so-called colleges of education
- so-called graduate courses in education
- so-called summer normal courses
- so-called teachers' institutes and in addition
- state departments of public instruction
- state central boards of education
- national bureau of education
- and
- volunteer associations of educators including foundations which deal with questions affecting normal-school ideals and methods

Solidarity of interest among these different branches of the normal family is needed. No one of them can be efficient without helping all the others. Nor can any one of them start in the wrong direction, "play offside," vacillate, stand still, or go backward without injuring all the others.

Of growing importance to all teacher training is the graduate school of education. For good or for ill advanced degrees in education are being sought by thousands of ablest teachers and supervisors. In other words, advanced degrees pay dividends in higher pay and greater prestige. Moreover, the lack of advanced degrees earns disesteem and imposes obstacles to preferment.

What kinds of advanced instruction lead to both greater love of teaching and greater ability to teach is a vital ques-

tion, to be answered by what happens in classroom, not by what is advertised for degree factories or doctorate theses.

The worm — the school — has begun to turn. Educators are coming to see that teaching ability often deteriorates as teachers and supervisors divert attention from teaching to lectures and books about teaching.

Secretary Charles D. Hine of the state board of education at Hartford, Connecticut, has written to college presidents offering to supervise practice work in the field by any students of education who wish "directed training in supervision, administration, compilation of educational statistics, and organization of educational material and office detail." Superintendent Cary of Wisconsin conducted a similar seminar in 1916 and announces similar work for 1917.

In the University of Wisconsin survey report, after a number of students, including city and state superintendents of instruction, had sought opportunity for investigation with the University of Wisconsin survey, Dr. Claxton, United States Commissioner of Education, asked "if it will be possible to gather such a body of students around the laboratory material at the United States Bureau of Education." The survey director replied that "If the wealth of information in the United States Bureau of Education were available for laboratory purposes to advance students of education it would surely become the most important center of educational research in the United States." The report added, "Any state department of instruction can add greatly to its scope and at the same time influence school administration and educational research by turning over administrative problems for similar analysis."

To itself alone no training group can live. The mere fact that it disdains its family connections does not remove those connections.

Working together means first seeing together, which requires the kind of inventory of teacher-training opportunities, program, method, and product which this handbook aims to make easier.

XIII

EXHIBITS

EXHIBIT I

53. *Constructive Suggestions for Increasing the Efficiency of a Medical Department*

NO counsel of perfection is intended by the following constructive suggestions for increasing the efficiency of the medical department. On the contrary; with but one or two exceptions each step here suggested is a step easy to take in view of Milwaukee's own condition.

If the greater part of these suggestions call for improved means of securing, stating, and using information, it is because facts prove that Milwaukee's medical department is already about as efficient as can reasonably be expected until more definite and useful information is placed currently in the hands of the chief medical inspector, the superintendent, the board of school directors, and the Milwaukee public.

To improve reports that come to the board of school directors

1. The board of school directors are responsible to the people of Milwaukee for the efficiency of the medical department, as they are responsible for the efficiency of the truancy and other departments. Unless school directors know what they have a right to expect from the medical department, they will not secure a reasonable maximum of efficiency. Few questions will be answered which they do not ask. Little information will be obtained beyond that which school directors use and require their administrative officers to use. The first important step towards securing maximum efficiency of medical supervision is for the school directors themselves to read the survey findings and particularly, with the medical department's report for 1913 in hand, to read that section of our report which takes up page by page omissions and deficiencies in that report which may be easily remedied.
2. There is still time to have a report for the last school year, 1913-14, which will show clearly the principal needs of this department. There is also ample time to have installed a proper system of daily, weekly, and monthly records and summaries for the school year which begins September, 1914. If the board acts quickly and decisively with respect to the report for last year, which is now in preparation, and the basic records for next year, it will by such

action alone materially increase the efficiency of every activity of the medical department.

To increase the scope of medical supervision

3. Ask the chief medical inspector, in collaboration with the city superintendent, to report in detail what, if any, kinds of service should be installed and what extensions of present kinds of service should be made in order to meet 100% of school needs. Ask that this list note needs in the order of their urgency. Besides influencing the expenditure of the department's energy for next year this 100% list of needs should also materially help the board and the city to determine what amount should be appropriated the next fiscal year for the medical department.
4. More physicians, many more nurses, many more dental clinics, and many more dispensaries willing to treat school children are needed. Granted that building should be "slow but sure," it is also true that the building will be surer and wiser if you have before you at once a 100% picture of what is needed. It is extravagant not to provide facilities enough. It is poor economy to save the few cents necessary for a nurse's visit at the expense of \$30 a year for teaching a child retarded because of physical defects.
5. Offer to parochial and other private schools not already provided, the facilities of your department for health supervision, on the avowed ground that Milwaukee cannot afford to have considerable numbers of children who are not protected against transmissible diseases meeting together in schools of whatever kind and mingling on the street with your nearly 60,000 public-school children. A precedent is furnished by the law which extends the compulsory-attendance provision to children of school age attending privately supported schools.
6. Require during the first fortnight of school universal health and safety surveys of every school building, including ventilation, cleanliness of classrooms and toilets, drinking fountains, lockers, grounds, desks, light, etc. The time to seat children properly with respect to light, sight, and hearing and to adjust adjustable desks, etc., is during the first week of school. While this survey could be made by the medical inspectors and nurses, it would be even better to have them supervise a survey to be made by teachers and pupils as part of the school system's instruction in hygiene. There is plenty of time left to devise and print a simple score card necessary to report results of such a survey.
7. Interest the teachers in the tremendous advantage to them personally, as well as to their children, of a general survey of all school children during the opening week of school. There is still time for the superintendent and chief medical inspector, with the assistants and nurses and principals, to organize enthusiastic team work of teachers. Practically every case needing immediate attention can be promptly discovered in this way. To begin treatment of aggravated cases at the outset of the term will save much time and trouble, not only for the teachers and for pupils who have aggravated defects which will interfere with school

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work, but also for other children whose progress is seriously retarded by the work of children needing attention. Such a plan is entirely practical (for any school).

8. Require that information gained by the first survey, and the later physical examination, be recorded in the class register or on the individual record card beside the child's name. Without such health record hundreds of children with defective hearing and thousands with defective vision are apt to be seated in the back part of the room when they should be seated in the front. "A stitch in time saves nine" is of nothing more true than of prompt attention to children's physical needs and to the information of parents whose cooperation is necessary in removing defects likely to interfere with a child's school progress.
9. Have Snellen eye-test cards given to every teacher and call for a report from each teacher regarding every one of her pupils during the first week of school. In 1912-13 only 253 children of your nearly 60,000 children were advised to have their eyes treated. Judging from other cities' experience 20,000 would be more nearly correct than 253. If teachers do ask the assistant medical inspectors to examine more children than actually need treatment, that is infinitely better than to leave thousands untreated whose eye troubles retard themselves and their classmates and unduly burden their teachers.
10. Through the superintendent, coordinate the work of the medical department and the supervision of physical training.
11. Offer at the expense of the board, physical examination to every school teacher, and consider the advisability of requiring a certificate of physical fitness even from those teachers who do not avail themselves of such offer.
12. Require the janitors and employees to report for physical examination, and help find other positions for any who show upon examination that their presence jeopardizes either their own health or pupils' health.
13. Require and provide the means for reexamination during the school year and preferably within a month after the first examination of all children reported to have been treated for physical defects. It is vastly better to get cured the physical defects of 100 pupils than to list the uncorrected defects of 60,000. Prompt reexamination will help secure prompt action by parents and family physicians. Tardy reexamination, or none, encourages inaction and indifference by parents and family physicians.
14. Under the direction of the physicians and nurses and through every school teacher in the city, introduce instruction in nasal and mouth hygiene, to include printed regulations, oral instructions, and demonstrations in the methods of breathing and in the use and limitations of sprays and gargles. With one free dental clinic or five free dental clinics, the need for dental repair work can never be caught up with unless interesting and convincing instruction in mouth hygiene and the care of the teeth is given to every child in every schoolroom.

15. Through conferences, instruction, and tests, require that teachers possess, apply, and pass on to their children a practical knowledge of those ordinary physical defects which interfere with school progress. A teacher who is a militant hygienist can do more than nurse and medical inspector combined. Where teachers are indifferent about requiring proper ventilation, clean rooms, and prompt attention to their own children's needs, nurses and medical inspectors have uphill work. No new teacher should be engaged who cannot prove ability to detect ordinary physical defects and to apply practical laws of classroom hygiene.
16. Ask the health department either to telephone each school every morning the addresses of transmissible diseases in its district, or to send to each school a complete list of addresses for the entire city. Require that the principals have checked off both the names and the addresses that appear on this list, and have children excluded or informed and warned, and parents instructed to take the necessary precautions. This practice has been found effective in several cities. The work entailed either for the health department or the individual principal is infinitesimal compared with the benefits that result.
17. Send the monthly and annual reports of the medical department promptly and regularly to the health department, partly to secure its coöperation, but chiefly to make available to it information of incalculable value in preventive health work.
18. Require a thorough examination of all children desiring permission to leave school, whether to go to work or to go on to other schools, to go on a vacation, or to stay at home, and explain to these children and their parents the economy and social importance of promptly meeting the physical needs disclosed by such examination.
19. Require examinations of those wishing to take part in athletic contests, not merely just before the contest but early in the year before training for such contests. A heart so weak that it will be injured by entering an athletic contest will also be injured by training six months for that contest.
20. Release the energies that are now diverted from the regular work of the medical department for examination of children wishing to enter athletic contests, by requiring these examinations to be made by the physical director and his assistants.
21. Extend the benefits of medical supervision and careful medical examination to the high schools, as requested by several high-school principals. In this connection consider the advantage of determining physiological age and classifying children accordingly. A test in one New York high school showed that of children classified according to physiological age rather than book ability, a much smaller proportion dropped out and a larger proportion did effective work than in classes of the same kind of boy in the same building, not grouped according to physiological age.
22. Use the coöperation which Milwaukee newspapers will give to make universally known the essential — and always interesting —

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facts about child-hygiene work, noting especially advance steps taken by the department in dealing with these problems. There is still time to provide the simple score card—and to distribute it—necessary to bring light with but a few minutes' attention by teachers to those children who obviously need immediate attention. This means all children with defects likely to interfere seriously with their own and other children's progress.

To give open air, i.e., clean, moving air, to all children

23. Locate promptly 100% of the children who should be given the opportunity such as those now in the one open-air class have. The above recommended general survey will disclose more rather than fewer children for whom open-air classes may reasonably be demanded.
24. Make an experiment in each school of open-air—i.e., clean, moving air—classrooms for children of at least one grade, whose parents express a preference for such air over ordinary classroom air. In New Rochelle, for example, enough parents made the request to require classrooms in two different buildings the first experimental term.
25. Require to be kept such records of progress in school work and in health, including comparisons with children in ordinary classrooms, to show whether it is a good investment for the taxpayers of Milwaukee to have open-air classes, not only for the anemic but for the not-yet-anemic children, or to keep either group in unclean, unmoving air.
26. Publish the comparisons so that the taxpayers will be convinced of the need if asked to spend large sums of money, and so that such extension as may be proved economical need not be delayed for want of understanding by the public.
27. Require that a record of temperature be kept for every classroom at least three times a day. Require that this record be observed by the principal and periodically by nurse and physician, and that all mispractice be reported to the chief medical inspector.
28. Also require special attention to ventilation for all children in all classrooms. In many cities the mistake has been made of neglecting the unclean air given to 99% of the children while rousing public enthusiasm for the open air given to 1%. If next year the thermometers are watched, windows opened several times a day, and children required to spend recess in the open air, Milwaukee's school children can be brought to adopt the creed voiced at Milwaukee last fall before the Wisconsin Teachers' Association by Dr. Woods Hutchinson, "The only fresh air is air that makes us feel fresh."
29. Require that the defects in method of reporting on open-air classes, mentioned in our discussion of the annual report, be corrected.

To help crippled children

30. Provide the equipment and materials necessary to make possible for all crippled children the adaptation of school work to their



Open-air instruction

State Normal School, Mayville, North Dakota



A school orchestra

State Normal School, Monmouth, Oregon

Teachers teach as they are taught

special needs, as shown in some of the illustrations given in our report of classroom work observed.

31. Ask the normal school to furnish teachers in training to help instruct crippled children at home. Complete the survey of crippled children able to attend school and not able to attend school, which was conducted for the south side and described on page 37 of the chief medical inspector's report for 1912-13.
32. Have all children who are so incapacitated that they cannot come to school, visited regularly by a departmental nurse.
33. Ask the coöperation of a civic society like the Visiting Nurses' Association in making a detailed survey to learn what kind, if any, regular instruction could be given at home to unfortunates not otherwise provided with instruction and what, if any, further help might be given through city or state hospitals and schools.

To increase the efficiency of nurses

34. Improve the supervision of nurses. Provide for a comparison of work required, work needed but not done, work done and its efficiency. **Require that current reports show these comparisons.**
35. **Double the number of nurses.** It will be possible to add and supervise five more nurses without decreasing the efficiency of the five present nurses. It may not be possible at once to add a larger number. It would be better to have eleven nurses and five physicians than to have, as at present, eleven medical inspectors and five nurses. What you want to do is to benefit the children. Telling them how to prevent and correct defects helps them more than putting their defects on cards. If you cannot exceed for the rest of this year, or for the next fiscal year, the present budgetary allowance for nurses and medical inspectors, you could get vastly more work for the same money by substituting six nurses for six of your present physicians. It should be remembered that for 50 cents an hour, or less, a nurse works from 9 to 5 on every school day (besides what she does on Saturdays and holidays, and evenings), whereas for three times that rate the physician is expected to work but two hours every school morning (except as some of them occasionally give three hours).
36. Overcome the present objection to removing enough clothing for proper examination of the heart, lungs, and spine, by general educational work with the public, by citing cases of children whose needs cannot now be ascertained without this, and finally by providing nurses for the routine examinations of girls. In fact, it will be economy to have the nurses, rather than the assistant medical inspectors, make all routine inspections to discover signs of transmissible diseases, make the tentative exclusions for contagious diseases, and make first examinations of eyes, ears, and throat. This will leave the physicians free to do the work which requires the special training they have and the nurses do not have—such as diagnosing difficult cases, passing finally upon exclusion, attending to general sanitary problems, teaching teachers how to teach and apply hygiene, etc. **While a physician is examining one mouth breather he might better be explaining to 40 teach-**

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ers how they can easily discover every mouth breather in their classes. While noting signs of transmissible disease which nurses (and teachers too) can be taught to detect just as well, the technically trained physicians might better be spending their time locating origins and organizing preventive work.

To help principals help their schools

37. Provide the blanks and postal cards that will make it easy for them to report facts about health needs in their schools.
38. Call for a statement once a month of conditions needing attention, i.e., ask the principal to report either that nothing is needed, or that specific things are needed. Do not make it difficult or embarrassing for principals to take the initiative.
39. Provide filing and "tickler" systems which will automatically bring to the principal's attention the fact that a child recently recommended for special treatment or care either has received that care or has not. Make it easy for the principal to report monthly his record of children not yet attended to, so that you can check it against the records of nurses and physicians.
40. Have the year started with a list for each room comparing for each child the number of terms he has attended school with his present grade, so as to show how many have taken longer to make the present grade than should have been necessary. Have special attention given to the physical condition of all children who have spent more than one term in school for each half grade.
41. Use the parent-teacher associations, or special conferences of parents, to win over those parents who, in spite of all efforts of the nurse and physician, refuse to have physical defects in their children corrected. In notifying parents use terms that enlighten, not mystify, them—itch, head lice, whooping cough, etc.

To make supervision more effective

42. Add to practically every original record of inspection, examination, etc., facts in special columns which will show at a glance work not done, work remaining to be done, children not examined, children not yet visited, children not yet treated, etc. The frequently emphasized need for changes in your reports will be impossible unless the daily records are so kept and so posted to summaries that the supervising officers can see what needs attention.
43. Require current comparisons, school with school, nurse with nurse, physician with physician, recommendations for treatment with treatments known to have been secured, unsanitary conditions remedied with those not remedied, month with month, this year with last year. This may sound as if a great deal of clerical work were required. Such is not the case. It takes very little, if any, longer to keep records which answer questions than to keep records which do not.
44. Require that on every child's card be marked the day when the nurse or physician making out the card should have the child brought again to his attention. Similarly, require that report of home visits show what was done, and when that home should

- be visited again. Cards should also indicate, so far as possible, method as well as result of treatment. It is possible to devise cards which will require as little clerical work as cards now in use and still give all this additional information.
45. Permit the word "treated" to be used only for cases that have received treatment acceptable to the department as shown by reexamination or other conclusive evidence. For cases under treatment by private physicians or institutions which on reexamination by the department inspector show no improvement, instead of having the record read "treated," have it read "reported by private physician (or institution) to be under treatment, but no evidence of treatment found."
 46. Where several records from one physician or one institution indicate that the purpose and spirit of the medical department are not understood or sympathized with, have the chief medical inspector and perhaps medical members of the board ask for a conference for the purpose of explaining the great importance to the schools of having private physicians take seriously this work for children.
 47. Have a special examination of present medical inspectors to ascertain whether they are sufficiently interested in their work and appreciate its vast importance to pupil and community. Take particular pains with any new inspectors to see that they have not merely the medical information but also the previous knowledge of work that the medical department is undertaking, with personal qualifications for working with teachers and children.
 48. Post in each classroom a list of the common transmissible diseases and the essential facts as to first signs, duration, isolation necessary, etc.
 49. Begin next September to require that inspectors and nurses give special attention to all children who show most obvious needs as the result of the city-wide survey proposed in recommendation No. 7.
 50. Require short conferences by nurses and medical inspectors, with compulsory attendance with the chief medical inspector and the representative of the city superintendent, at least once a week.
 51. Require that the chief medical inspector test the work of inspectors and nurses, not merely through comparative records but by actual reexaminations, to see whether their work is thorough and up to the department's standards. Any physician or any nurse who will not welcome such supervision is altogether too expensive for the department to retain.
 52. Make definite arrangements with the medical inspectors, and especially with the nurses, for late afternoon and evening visiting, and some Sunday as well as Saturday visiting, of parents who, during the working day, cannot be found with their children and in a teachable and cooperative state of mind.
 53. In order to have means of checking thoroughness of health program and of health supervision, records of the days lost because of exclusion from school should be on file in the office of the central medical inspector.
 54. Require that all original examinations and inspections be made by

others than the chief medical inspector, whose time is too much needed for supervision to justify his doing what anybody else in the department can do; i.e., require that the chief medical inspector be a supervisor and consulting expert, and not an inspector.

55. Place in each school and at the central office a question or complaint box, and furnish return "Help-Your-Health-Work" post cards, which will advertise the administration's desire to obtain promptly and freely such suggestions as medical inspectors, principals, and nurses wrote to the survey; e.g., "Clean the walls"; "Use plain English on examination cards"; "Stop all sweeping of halls and stairways during school hours"; "Stop taking one child at a time to dispensary or physician."

EXHIBIT II

54. *New York City's Teacher-Training Survey*

No study of New York City's three training schools for teachers was made by the New York City School Survey. In December, 1913, however, the board of education asked Dr. Albert Shiels, then director of the division of reference and research, "to present at the earliest date practicable a plan for studying present methods of preparing, examining, selecting, and training teachers in the public schools, which will enable the board to insure the highest possible efficiency in instruction and supervision."

The plan was reported in a noteworthy document (No. 5 — 1914), 50 pages single space, eight-point type.

Incidentally it urged a coöperative survey and in addition "correspondence publicly invited from any person who believes that he has a contribution to make." From this report, which represents study which few self-surveys can afford, are quoted the following helpful suggestive questions which do not duplicate what has gone before and which show the importance of deciding in advance what questions a coöperative self-survey should ask:

1. Should there be any conditions for entrance to local training schools in excess of those demanded by the state? Why?
2. If excess conditions are desirable, what reasons are there for the selection of those now required?
3. What other conditions or requirements could with advantage be added to or substituted for them? What reasons are there for such additions or substitutions?

4. Subject to state requirements, is it possible to arrange a course of study for more specialized instruction in high schools for prospective training-school students? What reasons are there for and against such instruction?
5. Is it desirable that senior high-school pupils about to enter training schools be charged with certain special responsibilities in guiding and helping in their studies the younger pupils in high schools? Are any such schemes in operation? What are their results? If profitable, are they susceptible of extension to other high schools?
6. What principle determines the present distribution of time given to academic subjects and methods of teaching them? What modifications of the present distribution, if any, should be made? Why?
7. What part of the course included under "history and civics" is devoted to civics? Is there a syllabus or outline of the material included under the second-named subject? If so, has it any provision for the study of a complex civilization like that of New York, so that teachers may adjust their instruction to the local conditions and needs of pupils? If not, what provision should be made for such instruction?
8. Should there be an outline, plan or syllabus for instruction in each academic subject? If so, who should prepare such an outline?
9. What details should be included in an outline? Should it, for example, provide in each subject such special methods and devices as methods of questioning, preparation of lesson plans, drill, review, use of illustrative material, methods of study, etc? If not, what should an outline of a subject, e.g., arithmetic, contain?
10. Should the course provide for a study of textbooks, including the following: the standards for determining their excellence, methods for applying these standards, and special instruction in the use of textbooks for study, recitation, and supplementary reading? If so, should such course be an undergraduate course or an extension course? Why?
11. What changes have been made in each of the academic subjects of the training-school course of study within five years? What was the character of each change made? When was it made?
12. What additions or modifications are suggested for the improvement of the present course of academic subjects? Why?
13. Does instruction in school and class management include the basis of grading and promotion, the questions arising from elimination, retardation, and acceleration, the physical conditions that affect the attention and comfort of pupils, the ratio of a course of study, the whole part-time problem, the significance of vocational direction, industrial education, and special aptitudes in relation to these subjects?
14. What parts of professional subjects as now taught are important as aids or guides to actual teaching in elementary schools? What parts are not important for needs of practical teaching? If any, for what reason are they included in the curriculum?
15. Are there any phases or subjects of instruction which are not

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- now included that could advantageously replace these subjects or portions of them? If so, what are they?
16. Among each of the professional non-elementary subjects, what possibility is there of readjustment, or correlation, or elimination as an independent subject, by which the total amount of time devoted to them could be reduced?
 17. What is the reason for the present assignment of time in each subject: e.g., logic in the first term and psychology in the second?
 18. What is the relative amount of time devoted to history and to education under the caption "history and principles" of education?
 19. By what conferences or directions or other means are students prepared for observation work, preceding their assignment? What directions or forms are given to each student? In what way is the observation work so arranged that students may observe the model teaching in the different grades and in the various subjects?
 20. Are students assigned as classes in smaller groups or as individuals? What consideration or principle determines this method?
 21. Should there be a provision by which the visiting student should confer with the model teacher? If so, should such conferences be held before or after the lessons?
 22. Should the instructor assigning a student to observation work confer with the model teacher? Why? Should the model teacher confer with the instructor to whom the student submits his report? Why? Should the model teachers be present during criticisms or conferences following the submission of the report? Why? Should any teacher other than the model teacher be present during the lesson? Why? How do the conclusions accord with present practice?
 23. What is the nature of the report required of students after they have observed a lesson? If specific things are required, what are they? To whom is such a report made? What subsequent disposition is made of such a report? What criticisms or discussions follow the submission of the report by students? How much time elapses between observation and subsequent discussion? What suggestions for improvements may be made in the present practice of observation work of model classes? What reasons are given for the value of each?
 24. Should instruction be given to training-school students in the teacher's relation to other members of the teaching and supervising force, to her pupils and to herself?
 25. Is the present course of training of sufficient length? If not, why?
 26. If the present course of training should be increased, what methods are suggested for lengthening the course? What is the value of each of these methods?
 27. What modifications of or additions to the content of the course are suggested if the present two-year course be increased in length? What is the purpose of introducing each of the proposed modifications?
 28. Should extension courses for public-school teachers be established in training schools? Why?

29. Should extra compensation be allowed for such extension instruction? If so, should it be given to all instructors or to some? Why?
30. Should the training school prepare teachers for all the grades of the elementary school, or should there be specialized preparation for primary and advanced grades? Why? If so, should these two kinds of training be laid out in a two-year course, or should the latter be extended in time? If so, what outline would you recommend for such a course?
31. Should there be special instruction and preparation of training-school students who show marked aptitudes in certain subjects in order to prepare them to teach such subjects in several grades or classes? If so, what provision should be made for such instruction?
32. Should there be special instruction and preparation of training-school students for teaching abnormal or special types of pupils? If so, what provision should be made for such instruction?
33. Should teachers be encouraged to suggest modifications in existing methods of instruction of administration? If so, what provision is made for this? Should they be invited to try out experiments involving such modifications? If so, what provision is made for this?
34. Do the records of visits or inspections indicate the frequency of visits from supervisory officials, principals and instructors from other training schools, principals and instructors from elementary schools, and graduate students? If so, there should be a summary of the total number of visits showing the classes of visits and their frequency.
35. Have any special studies been made by students or instructors of any phase of training-school instruction or of administration? If so, what is their character? Have the results of such studies been announced to other training schools directly or through published reports?
36. What elements should be included as a basis for estimating the value of the services of a training-school instructor? A critic teacher? A model teacher? What is the method of determining the grade of work in each of these elements? Should a record be kept of each of these factors? Is there such a record? What is the present method of indicating the principal's judgment of the work of teachers in training schools? Should it be modified? Why?
37. What measures should be taken by elementary-school principals that would best prepare for regular teaching a student doing practice work? What is the present practice?
38. Should the school day be arranged so that there could be practice work and criticism on the same day? If so, is there a practical method for accomplishing this?
39. Is the present number of critic teachers adequate for the proper supervision of students in practice teaching? If not, why?
40. Should students be required to present evidence of satisfactory

[illegible][illegible]

- observation period? (c) Have you taken part in such conferences? (d) Were they incidental or part of a regular procedure? (e) How frequently were such conferences held?
54. What reports and records are you required to make containing information that seems to you to be unnecessary?
55. What reports or records are required that in your opinion involve unnecessary duplication or repetition?
56. What suggestions can you make for the improvement of the records and reports now required of training-school instructors?
57. (a) What reports are required from critic teachers after observing the practice work? (b) Who prescribes the form of such reports? (c) What disposition is made of such reports? (d) Do they hold conferences with students after their practice work? If so, are such conferences held with individuals or groups? (e) How long after their observation of practice work do such conferences take place?
58. (a) Could model teachers, in your opinion, profit by visiting the classes in the training department? Why? (b) State the classes in the training department you have visited since September 1, 1913, and the grade of each class. (c) Were these visits incidental or part of a regular procedure? (d) State as specifically as you can of what value these visits were to you.
59. State definitely the value to you of visits (by supervisors) as they may have affected: (a) The content of the subject you teach; (b) Your methods of instruction; (c) Your relations to pupils and methods of dealing with them; (d) Other results.

Questions to Graduates

60. Of the subjects you studied, state specifically the ones that have helped you directly in your teaching, either by giving you knowledge or by showing you how to teach. Give concrete illustrations.
61. State specifically which of these subjects you did not apply in actual teaching, but which, nevertheless, you have found to be desirable parts of your equipment as a teacher. Give concrete illustrations.
62. (a) State specifically which of these subjects you believe have not been of any particular benefit to you as a teacher. (b) State in each case whether, in your opinion, this was because
1. There was not enough of the subject taught, or
 2. As a training-school student at that time you were too immature to understand it, or
 3. You could not use the knowledge you had obtained as a teacher of elementary subjects, or
 4. The method of teaching it to you was poor.
 5. State any other reasons.
63. In view of your experience as a student and your needs as teacher state: (a) For which of the subjects in the course of study for training schools should there be more time allowed? Why? (b) For which of these should the present time allotment be decreased? Why? (c) Which of these subjects, in your opinion, should be dropped from an undergraduate training course? Why? (d)

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practice teaching with classes of both sexes? Why? How do these conclusions accord with the present practice?

41. Should graduate students be invited to state their own opinions and criticisms of their training-school preparation from the viewpoint of their subsequent teaching experience?
42. Should model teachers be invited to attend conferences either of the training-school faculty or of the critic teachers? Why? Have they been invited?
43. What existent associations of training-school instructors, critic teachers, model teachers, by grades of service or as a whole, are engaged in the discussion or study of training-school problems? If so, what problems have been discussed? What results, if any, followed such discussions?
44. Should training-school principals and instructors visit elementary schools? What may be gained by such visits? How frequent should such visits be? How many such visits have been made since last September?
45. In what other practicable ways can training-school principals or instructors obtain a fuller knowledge of the conditions, practices, and requirements of elementary schools and their facilities for training teachers? Which of these proposed methods have been tried? Which have proved successful?
46. Should elementary-school principals and district superintendents visit training schools? If so, what may be gained by such visits? How frequent should such visits be? How many such visits have been made since September 1, 1913?
47. Should elementary principals and district superintendents be included in the training-school staff for occasional periods? If so, what practicable methods are suggested for doing this?
48. Do you believe the course of study should include: (a) A study of the standards that should determine the selection of textbooks? (b) The methods of applying these standards? (c) Special instruction in the use of textbooks for study, for recitation, for supplementary material?
49. Do you think such instruction should be given independently in a separate course, or in connection with each of those subjects to which it applies? Why?
50. What specific instruction in the selection and use of textbooks is now included in the syllabus used by you?
51. What share have instructors in the assignment of students to observation work?
52. (a) What reports are required from students after they have completed the observation work? (b) Who prescribes the form for such reports? (c) What disposition is made of these reports? (d) Do instructors personally confer with students in their observation work and reports thereon? (e) Are such conferences incidental or part of a regular procedure? (f) How long after the observation period do such conferences take place?
53. (a) Do you believe that training-school instructors should confer with model teachers concerning the observation work? (b) If so, when should such conferences take place—before or after the

- observation period? (c) Have you taken part in such conferences? (d) Were they incidental or part of a regular procedure? (e) How frequently were such conferences held?
54. What reports and records are you required to make containing information that seems to you to be unnecessary?
55. What reports or records are required that in your opinion involve unnecessary duplication or repetition?
56. What suggestions can you make for the improvement of the records and reports now required of training-school instructors?
57. (a) What reports are required from critic teachers after observing the practice work? (b) Who prescribes the form of such reports? (c) What disposition is made of such reports? (d) Do they hold conferences with students after their practice work? If so, are such conferences held with individuals or groups? (e) How long after their observation of practice work do such conferences take place?
58. (a) Could model teachers, in your opinion, profit by visiting the classes in the training department? Why? (b) State the classes in the training department you have visited since September 1, 1913, and the grade of each class. (c) Were these visits incidental or part of a regular procedure? (d) State as specifically as you can of what value these visits were to you.
59. State definitely the value to you of visits (by supervisors) as they may have affected: (a) The content of the subject you teach; (b) Your methods of instruction; (c) Your relations to pupils and methods of dealing with them; (d) Other results.

Questions to Graduates

60. Of the subjects you studied, state specifically the ones that have helped you directly in your teaching, either by giving you knowledge or by showing you how to teach. Give concrete illustrations.
61. State specifically which of these subjects you did not apply in actual teaching, but which, nevertheless, you have found to be desirable parts of your equipment as a teacher. Give concrete illustrations.
62. (a) State specifically which of these subjects you believe have not been of any particular benefit to you as a teacher. (b) State in each case whether, in your opinion, this was because
1. There was not enough of the subject taught, or
 2. As a training-school student at that time you were too immature to understand it, or
 3. You could not use the knowledge you had obtained as a teacher of elementary subjects, or
 4. The method of teaching it to you was poor.
 5. State any other reasons.
63. In view of your experience as a student and your needs as teacher state: (a) For which of the subjects in the course of study for training schools should there be more time allowed? Why? (b) For which of these should the present time allotment be decreased? Why? (c) Which of these subjects, in your opinion, should be dropped from an undergraduate training course? Why? (d)

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- What new subjects do you believe should be introduced into the course?
64. Do you believe that organization of the observation work as you experienced it can be improved: (a) In the method of assigning students to work in observation? (b) In the types of lessons which you were assigned to observe? (c) In the reports which you made of your observation work? (d) In the disposition or use of such reports? (e) In any other respect?
 65. In answer to each of these queries state specifically in what way such improvements should be made.
 66. Do you believe the organization of the practice work of students (pupil teachers) as you experienced it can be improved: (a) In the nature of assignments to elementary schools? (b) In the kind of work given to you by the elementary-school principals? (c) In the method of observation or direction by the critic teacher? (d) In the conferences or discussions you had with critic teachers subsequently?
 67. What suggestions would you make, other than those included in the foregoing answers, which in your opinion would tend to improve the work of instruction and administration in training schools?

EXHIBIT III

55. *Applicable Tests: Wisconsin's Results*

To 1100 high-school graduates entering eight normal schools examinations were given in arithmetic, United States history, grammar, and geography. To registered students in all grades a further test in general information was given. These tests with results are reproduced here for help in testing pupils and in self-testing teachers.

Only the percentage not right is given here. In the survey report facts are given to show percentage right, wrong, vague, and not answered.

The reason for giving here the percentage not right instead of the percentage right is that the rights make us contented and reminiscent, whereas the not rights, including those wrong and those not attempted, make us want to do something to reduce the percentage.

Please remember that the questions were worked out in cooperation with normal-school presidents who in 1913-14 considered them fair tests of how students' ability to do compared with what they were expected to do. The results

show specifically what students soon to become teachers were unable to answer right.

Arithmetic Problems *Per Cent
Answers
Not Right*

1. From 3% take 1%	12
2. Divide 12 by 1%	6
3. Divide 137% by 5	13
4. Divide .012 by .02	15
5. Divide 1.2 by .002	23
6. Multiply 1.2 by 1%	29
7. Fill in blank with answer. I bought a pencil for 2c and sold it for 3c. My gain is per cent.	24
8. Fill in blank with answer. By selling an article for 10c my gain is 25 per cent. To gain 50 per cent the article should have been sold for cents.	53
9. A merchant opens an account and deposits for the week:	
Monday	\$887.34
Tuesday	1,296.79
Wednesday	1,187.34
Thursday	1,074.75
Friday	1,073.48
Saturday	1,492.75
During the week he drew out \$6,427.67. What was his balance at the end of the week?	15
10. Find the cost of 25 joists 10 in. by 2 in. and 18 ft. long at \$40 per M.	64
Number in each group.	
11. I bought the S. $\frac{1}{2}$ of the N. W. $\frac{1}{4}$ of section 1.	
a. Draw diagram showing location of land in section.	24
b. How many posts set 1 rod apart will it take to enclose the land bought?	81
c. How many acres in the tract? ..	51
12. Find the value of a pile of wood 64 ft. long, 4 ft. wide and 6 ft. high at \$7.50 a cord	35
13. A tax of \$63 is levied for building a school house. The assessed valuation is \$4,200.00. What is the tax on a property assessed at \$7,200?	37
14. Find the interest on \$240 at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent for 1 yr. 1 mo. 10 days	30
15. A merchant buys goods at a discount of 25 per cent and 20 per cent from the price listed in catalogue and sells at a discount of 20 per cent from the same list price. What per cent profit does he make?	85
16. A man bought a house and lot for \$4,000. He immediately rented the property at \$40 a month. At the end of the year his expenses on the property were as follows: repairs on house, \$75; insurance, \$15; taxes,	

Arithmetic Problems *Per Cent
Answers
Not Right*

\$30. What per cent net income did the buyer of the property realize on the purchase price?	41
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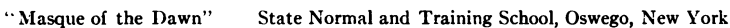
United States History

1. Fill in below names of three European countries which made explorations in America, the names of the explorers and the regions visited	31
2. Name three American colonies. In each give the name of the first settlement, the nationality of colonists and the purpose or motive leading to the settlement	65
3. List what you believe to be the three chief causes of the revolutionary war. Make answer brief ..	24
4. When was the constitution of the United States adopted?	87
Answer one of the two following:	
a. Name two compromises of the United States constitution made by the constitutional convention in framing the constitution	47
b. Give three causes which contributed to the growth of the institution of slavery, stating briefly the effect of each	33
5. List below three territorial acquisitions of the United States, giving name of territory acquired, from whom secured, and some of the states or territories created out of the acquired territory	41
6. State briefly, in a sentence or two, the most significant fact regarding fifteen of the following:	
a. Monroe doctrine	50
b. Primary elections	66
c. Navigation laws	70
d. Reconstruction period	54
e. Fugitive slave law	26
f. Electoral college	67
g. Dred Scott decision	64
h. Articles of confederation	46
i. Emancipation proclamation	27
j. The Hague tribunal	68
k. Missouri compromise	68
l. Mason-Dixon line	73
m. Spoils system	49
n. Civil service reform	48
o. Declaration of independence ..	22
p. Carpet-baggers	65
q. Era of good feeling	73
r. Kansas-Nebraska bill	80
s. Gerrymandering	74

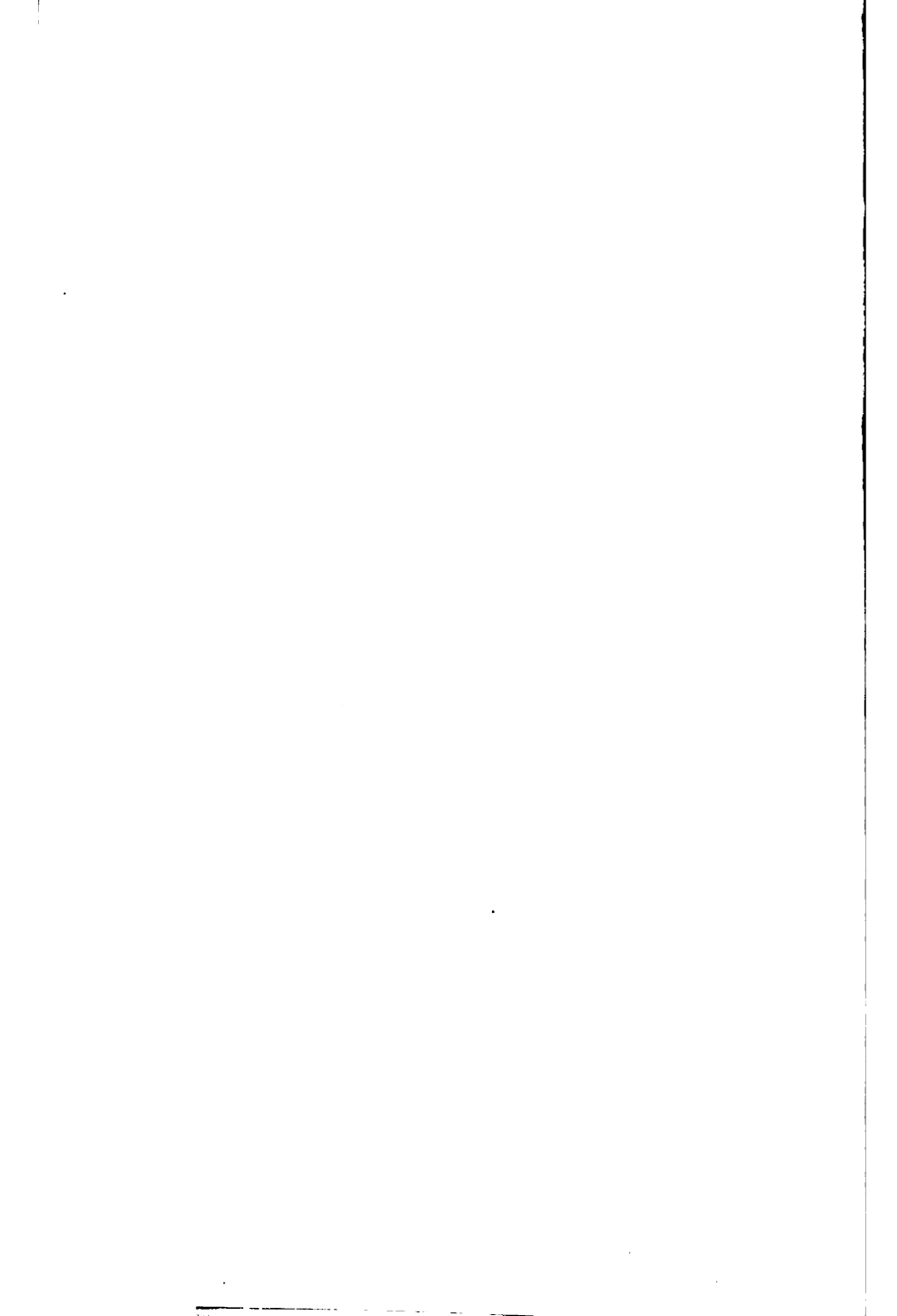
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United States History	Per Cent Answers Not Right	Grammar	Per Cent Answers Not Right
t. Lincoln-Douglas debates	90	2 verbs in the passive voice	39
7. With what movement or event		2 personal pronouns	4
is each of the following identified?		A relative or conjunctive pronoun	30
a. Benjamin Franklin	23	2. a. I am happy in planning for	
b. John C. Calhoun	61	our journey.	
c. Thomas Jefferson	49	b. Nothing can be great which is	
d. Roger Williams	47	not right.	
e. Alexander Hamilton	50	c. He who would search for	
f. Robert Fulton	7	pearls must dive below.	
g. Sir Walter Raleigh	51	d. Why, there are my gloves!	
h. William Penn	12	e. There are no leaves on the	
i. Cyrus McCormick	42	trees.	
j. Andrew Jackson	54	Indicate what parts of speech the	
k. Patrick Henry	48	underscored words are by placing	
l. LaFayette	36	them in proper columns as provided	
m. Eli Whitney	11	below	22
n. Commodore Perry	49	3. Give the construction of each	
o. Samuel F. B. Morse	47	noun in the following sentences:	
p. John Brown	50	Man became a living soul.	
q. William Pitt	7	The president granted the pris-	
r. Horace Greeley	51	oner a full pardon.	
8. State briefly what you under-		Time makes the worst enemies	
stand the following to mean: The		friends.	
United States has become a "world		They desire Henry to be their	
power,"	23	captain.	
9. State briefly what you under-		They walked a mile.	
stand by:		The boy was called James.	
a. Free trade	26	The book cost a dollar	43
b. Tariff for revenue	29	4. a. He will tell us where we can	
c. Tariff for protection	24	find them.	
10. Name five inventions that have		b. He is precisely what he seems.	
hastened the settlement and develop-		c. I do not know where he is.	
ment of our country and how	24	d. His last words were: "Don't	
		give up the ship."	
Grammar		e. That he is brave is beyond	
1. a. Where the information was		question.	
obtained is a secret.		In the above select the noun	
b. He had gone home before the		clauses and tell how each is used,	
game was finished.		whether as subject, direct object,	
c. If he come by noon we shall		etc.	36
see him.		5. He knows what you said. The	
d. They who will not work must		evil that men do lives after them.	
starve.		They desire him to become their	
e. I doubt whether he can come.		leader. They know who it is. Who	
f. We sow that we may reap.		steals my purse steals trash. Talent	
g. The flag was held aloft.		is that which is in a man's power;	
h. He wrote the letter.		genius is that in whose power a man	
From the sentences select:		is.	
A simple sentence	3	In the blanks following the pro-	
A complex sentence	2	nouns in the table state the kind of	
A clause used as an adjective	22	pronoun you think it is and its con-	
A clause used as an adverb	20	struction as used in a sentence above	61
A clause used as a noun	24	6. He who strives usually succeeds.	
A verb in the indicative mode	15	Although it was snowing hard he	
A verb in the subjunctive mode	41	went willingly. This is the place	
A verb in the present tense	5	where he was born. Go where glory	
A verb in the past tense	6	waits. They are sorry that he did	
A verb in the future tense	22	so.	
A verb in the past perfect tense	23	Pick out the subordinate clauses in	
2 transitive verbs	34	the above sentences and tell how each	
2 intransitive verbs	39	is used, whether as an adjective or as	
2 verbs in the active voice	20	an adverb	27

voice
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Results of 1100 Wisconsin Tests

201

Geography	Per Cent Answers Not Right
1. Name the continents and state in what zones they are located	66
2. Name the oceans and state what continents each borders	52
3. Name the "Great Lakes" and the states bordering on each	79
4. What and where is each of the following:	
Yukon	28
Vancouver	37
Volga	42
Dardanelles	82
Thibet	55
Korea	54
Seattle	7
Nile	8
Sydney	53
Suez	38
Bosphorus	71
Manila	40
Panama	11
Corsica	47
Yokohama	64
Killarney	55
Hoang-Ho	59
Haiti	56
Tripoli	49
Luzon	84
Ozark	60
Manitoba	60
Sicily	27
Peking	7
Adrianople	60
Bulgaria	32
Manchester	39
Venice	11
Leeds	61
Orinoco	37
Alberta	51
Sahara	11
Klondike	53
Cascades	45
Newfoundland	44
Adirondacks	33
Gibraltar	28
Grand Canyon	67
Java	67
5. Compare climate of Labrador and England and account for difference	44
6. List the chief factors that determine the climate of Wisconsin ..	59
7. Why is it that along the coast of Washington and Oregon the annual rainfall is over 60 inches while in the eastern portions of these states irrigation is necessary?	29
8. Give the cause of land and sea breezes or state causes of winds ...	72
9. What causes night and day? ..	23
10. State briefly what causes the seasons	46
11. Name the states where the following products are largely produced:	

Geography	Per Cent Answers Not Right
Wheat	17
Corn	22
Sugar	38
Rice	35
Cattle and sheep	26
Wool	49
Cotton	22
Coal	11
Iron	26
Iron manufactures	37
Dairy products	17
Lumber	19
Automobiles	31
Fruits	23
12. Name the countries of the world that lead in the production of items at left:	
Coffee	33
Rubber	37
Wool	28
Fine hard wood	61
Coal	23
Tea	9
Manufactured products	10
Furs	17
Petroleum	26
Raw silk	18
Beef cattle	23

General Information

Name:

1. The president of the United States	0
2. The governor of Wisconsin ...	4
3. The United States senators from Wisconsin	18
4. Three United States cabinet officers	35
5. The president of the University of Wisconsin	40
6. The state superintendent of public instruction of Wisconsin	22
7. The secretary of state of Wisconsin	93
8. Three island possessions of the United States	35
9. The founder of the Salvation Army	55
10. Two Balkan states	29
11. The champions of world's baseball series of 1913	67
12. A United States possession desiring home rule	50
13. Two important bills considered by present congress	36
14. Regarding each of the following give some facts as follows:	
Gladstone—English statesman.	
Tolstoi	51
Amundsen	40
Lloyd George	67
Captain Scott	47
Luther Burbank	36

202 Self-Surveys by Teacher-Training Schools

General Information	Per Cent Answers Not Right
50. Colonel Goethals	64
51. Raphael	43
52. Huerta	17
53. Jane Addams	30
54. Booker T. Washington	12
55. Pasteur	66
56. Demosthenes	42
57. Bismarck	55
58. Wagner	27
59. Cromwell	21
60. Hannibal	67
61. Confucius	69
62. Joan of Arc	26
63. Robespierre	65
64. Parnell	97
65. Mary Baker Eddy	38
66. Mohammed	28
67. John R. Commons	96
68. Frances Willard	78
69. Alfred Nobel	85
70. Francis Joseph	80
71. James J. Hill	52
72. Florence Nightingale	74
73. David Starr Jordan	75
74. Wilhelm Tell	53
75. Champ Clark	23
76. Mazzini	95
77. Peter the Great	47
78. Dante	50
79. De Lesseps	90
80. William Sulzer	39
81. Emmeline Pankhurst	17
What kind of government has:	
82. France	8
83. Turkey	18
84. Russia	19
85. Portugal	58
86. Argentina	14
87. China	28
88. Hawaii	56
Who is most prominently con-	
nected with the invention of the	
89. Steam engine	92
90. Steamboat	5
91. Sewing machine	79
92. Printing press	87

General Information	Per Cent Answers Not Right
63. Telegraph	28
64. Telephone	47
65. Harvester	28
66. Cotton gin	7
67. Wireless telegraph	63
Who wrote	
68. Les Misérables	56
69. Pilgrim's Progress	26
70. Faust	65
71. King Lear	17
72. The Odyssey	15
73. Poor Richard's Almanac	17
74. Pickwick Papers	38
75. Huckleberry Finn	54
76. Autocrat of the Breakfast	
Table	7
77. Evangeline	7
Locate	
78. Sparta	14
79. Antwerp	72
80. Adrianople	54
81. Jericho	68
82. Harvard University	32
83. Tasmania	84
84. Hamburg	9
What is each of the following:	
85. Westminster Abbey	22
86. Ellis Island	48
87. Wisconsin Industrial Commis-	
sion	75
88. University extension	60
89. The Babcock test	32
90. Continuation schools	80
91. The International date line ..	67
What is meant by	
92. Militant suffragette	42
93. Time in London when 8 a. m.	
at your present residence	88
94. Tammany Hall	54
95. Initiative	69
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